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ABSTRACT

A collection of nine papers related to international recognition of studies and degrees is presented. The papers are as follows: "Problems of Equivalence of Studies and Diplomas in Higher Education Systems" (Hanna Jablonska-Skinder); "Unveiling the Hidden Information in Credentials: A Proposal to Introduce a 'Supplement to Higher Education Diplomas'" (Carin Berg and Ulrich Teichler); "International Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees as Seen from an American Perspective" (Karlene N. Dickey); "TRACE: Trans Regional Academic Mobility and Credential Evaluation" (Claudine Langlois); "ERASMUS: The European Community's Higher Education Programme in its First Year" (Alan Smith and Fritz Dalichow); "Student Mobility in the Europe Region: A Statistical Evaluation" (Dumitru Chitoran and Valentin Nicolae); "Mobility or Migration?: The Case of Greek Students Abroad" (Marie Eliou); "A Model for Developing Common Master's Degree Programmes in Europe" (Harold W. Lawson); and "Transfrontier Regional University Cooperation (TRUC)" (Denis Clare). (SM)

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In this issue:

**International Recognition
of Studies and Degrees:
Challenges and Perspectives**

Higher education in Europe

Higher Education in Europe is a quarterly review published in English, French, and Russian by the Unesco European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES). It deals with major issues and trends in contemporary higher education and presents information on current developments and events in this field. While focussing mainly on Europe and North America, it regularly features contributions from other regions of the world as well.

Director:
Carin Berg

Editor in chief:
Dumitru Chiţoran

Editors:
Leland C. Barrows (Senior Editor)
Alexander Prokhorov (Senior Editor)

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All correspondence should be addressed to:
European Centre for Higher Education
39, Ştirbei Vodă Street
R-70732 Bucharest
Romania
Telephone: 13.08.39; 15.99.56; 15.99.57
Telex: 11 658 cepes r

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FROM THE EDITORS

The topic of this issue of *Higher Education in Europe*, the "International Recognition of Studies and Degrees: Challenges and Perspectives", is linked to the role of CEPES as the Secretariat of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region. Our review, in fact, has frequently featured articles on questions of academic mobility and of equivalences of studies and of diplomas. This particular issue is intended to serve as input to the Fourth Session of the Regional Committee to be held in Bucharest from 27 to 29 September, 1988.

The articles which we have chosen cover three distinct aspects of the interrelated questions of recognition and mobility: 1) how the actual information needed for making proper judgements relative to equivalency and recognition of studies is to be defined, identified, recorded, transmitted, and ultimately used; 2) the growth of transnational structures intended to facilitat estudent mobility for specific purposes; 3) the actual extent of student mobility as illustrated statistically and its effects.

The first aspect is covered by four articles. Hanna Jabłońska-Skinder of Poland leads off with a presentation of the difficulties involved in obtaining and interpreting information on given higher education systems and academic programmes so as to make accurate rulings as to the value of foreign credentials. Carin Berg of Sweden and Ulrich Teichler of the Federal Republic of Germany suggest, in their joint article, that one solution to the problem of obtaining sufficient information for properly evaluating individual credentials would be to develop an internationally standardized diploma supplement, to be issued to graduating students along with their diplomas, as an aid for continued study abroad.

The generalization of such a supplement would still not eliminate the need for regional and national information centres on higher education. Karlene N. Dickey of the United States of America describes the major nongovernmental organizations which have arisen in her country to provide its very large but very decentralized higher education systems with accurate information on foreign education systems and credentials so that they can make correct judgements with regard to the placement of incoming foreign students. The need for the rapid international transmission of data on higher education systems, programmes, and credentials, coupled with the technical possibilities of electronic networking, have recently led a group of international higher education experts to lay the foundations of TRACE — Trans

Regional Academic Mobility and Credential Evaluation — a computerized data network. Claudine Langlois of the International Association of Universities, one of the founding organizations of the project, describes its inception and aims.

The second aspect of our topic is covered by Alan Smith and Fritz Dalichow of the ERASMUS Bureau in Brussels. The two authors describe the inception and the programmes of ERASMUS, the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students.

Two articles, one by Dumitru Chiţoran of CEPES and Valentin Nicolae of Romania, and the other by Marie Eliou of Greece, come to grips with the third aspect. The authors of the first article survey the distribution of foreign students studying in the Europe Region as of 1983 in terms both of country of origin and of country of destination. The author of the second article, who focuses specifically on her country, points out that in absolute terms Greece ranks fourth in the world (first in Europe) in terms of student out-mobility. She argues that mobility of such an intensity, most of it unplanned, may pose various problems both from the point of view of the country and from that of the student.

The themes of the two articles making up the "Tribune" section are reflections of some of the questions which were brought to the fore in the preceding articles. Harold W. Lawson, an American professor established in Sweden, sketches a model for the creation of a standardized European Master's Degree programme applicable particularly to the engineering disciplines. Denis Clare of the United Kingdom describes TRUC — Transfrontier Regional University Cooperation — a vocationally oriented mobility scheme that promotes higher education/employer transregional links.

This issue of *Higher Education in Europe* is the first to be published since Carin Berg took over as Director of CEPES in April 1988. Significantly, she herself is a specialist on questions of university equivalency and student mobility. President since 1986 of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region and Head of the Swedish National Information Centre on Equivalences since 1984, she brings to her new job a long and varied experience in matters of higher education.

We anticipate that the Fourth Session of the Regional Committee will be as fruitful as the three previous sessions were. Indeed, writing three months before the session is convened, we are pleased to announce that three more countries have ratified the Convention: Czechoslovakia, Norway, and Turkey, thus bringing to twenty-seven the total number of ratifications.

International Recognition of Studies and Degrees: Challenges and Perspectives

PROBLEMS OF EQUIVALENCE OF STUDIES AND DIPLOMAS IN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS

Hanna JABŁOŃSKA-SKINDER

This article surveys the problems and the traps of equivalences in higher education and proposes solutions to the former and ways of avoiding the latter. To begin with, one must be clear as to basic concepts and be able to distinguish between recognition and equivalence, the second being synonymous with the first, if formal equivalence is what is meant. But the principal task is one of defining and granting so-called real equivalence, that is, equivalence based on the comparison of educational programmes, contents, length of study, the methods and the results of evaluations, and appropriate assessments of the academic value of practical work. It is also necessary to be clear at the outset as to the purposes of a given equivalence: to permit further study in another country or to aid in securing employment in a given occupation in another country. A major problem relates to varying conceptions of what is specifically university education in relation to higher education as a whole; the weight to be granted to post-secondary, non-university training; the whole question of length of studies; and ambiguities relative to terminology. Although it will never be possible to formulate ideal solutions to all problems, the key to obtaining the best possible solution is to be found in the improvement of the availability of standardized information by the exploitation of such sources as Unesco statistics, student books, analyses of bilateral conventions for applicable analogies, and, eventually, the sort of diploma supplement which Carin Berg and Ulrich Teichler are recommending.

1. Introduction

Preparations for an anticipated international convention on the mutual recognition of studies and diplomas in higher education systems have given rise to a good deal of ancillary work intended to deepen knowledge of all aspects of the problems involved.

In Europe, the recognition of studies and diplomas, both in practice and theory, is dealt with by a large variety of organizations, including the Unesco Regional Committee for European countries, which fulfills its statutory tasks in this field, and the Secretariat of the Committee, the European Centre for Higher Education.

An international symposium on the comparison of studies, diplomas, and degrees in higher education systems held in Leipzig (GDR), in July, 1986 [1], revealed some of the principal difficulties involved in questions of equivalence and became an inspiration for many experts and organizations to undertake further activities in the field.

For many reasons, the tasks to be undertaken and completed will not be simple or easy. Many of them may never be regarded as complete. One has only to consider the changes that are now occurring and will continue to occur in the higher education systems of various countries.

Given the steady growth of international mobility among students and administrative and academic staff members and the assumption, based on statistical projections, that this mobility will continue to increase, logic dictates that efforts aimed throughout the world at improving the conditions of the mutual recognition of studies and diplomas should be intensified.

2. Basic Problems Related to the Recognition and the Equivalence of Studies and Diplomas

Great importance must be given to the enhancement of the conditions under which studies completed and diplomas earned in individual countries are compared. The process involved should provide such information as to permit the evaluation of a given diploma, so as, eventually, to permit its holder to continue his studies or simply to have his diploma recognized anywhere in the world.

So far, however, particularly in Europe, great difficulties, stemming chiefly from insufficient flows of information, have hampered the establishment of formal procedures for recognition and equivalence. The intention of this article is to call attention to several of the principal problems.

2.1. *Recognition and Equivalence of Diplomas*

It is necessary to begin at the outset with precise definitions of the scopes of the terms, *recognition* and *equivalence*, for they are frequently used interchangeably. *Equivalence*, in fact, has two separate meanings depending on the process to which it refers. It may refer to an *equivalence of documents* of education, a result which may be designated as *formal equivalence*, the term being synonymous with *recognition*. It may refer to "*real equivalence*" based on the comparison of educational programmes, contents, and methods along with an assessment of the level of knowledge and of qualifications required for the award of a given diploma.

Certifying the equality of educational documents issued in one country with regard to documents attesting similar educational levels in another country and certifying the equality of evaluations of knowledge and of qualifications received in different countries are subsequent stages of the same process. But whereas the formal equivalence of documents of education (recognition) is accorded almost automatically in many countries, *real equivalence* causes many difficulties in practice. Development of means for the certification of real equivalence is the target to be pursued even though its attainment may be difficult, regardless of how excellent the criteria for comparison are and how well the methods chosen to measure the relevant values are selected and applied. This reality holds particularly true with regard to the assessment of the equivalence of knowledge and qualifications, a process which is hindered by the variety of educational programmes and forms existing in various branches of science, as well as the social, economic, and cultural conditions of higher education systems in individual countries, not to mention the changes occurring in higher education systems themselves.

The experience accumulated in certain countries indicates that the full equivalence of diplomas, even in a given country having a unified system of studies, cannot be attained. Too many differences in programmes and in levels of education in different universities conspire to make the process of equivalence well nigh impossible. So, in spite of the formal equality of diplomas granted by all the universities of a given country — as is the case in all the socialist countries of Europe, for example — there will always be "better" and "worse" diplomas depending on the prestige, the staff, and the infrastructure of given universities; and, for all practical purposes, there will always be "better" and "worse" graduates, even though, to a great extent, this gradation will depend to a considerable degree on the given students themselves rather than on the perceived rankings of their diplomas. These problems are rendered even more complex in certain countries having federal structures for, as a consequence, a number of higher education systems display differences among themselves.

The experience gained so far by a number of countries has been primarily one of elaborating processes by which diplomas awarded and stages of study completed in one country will be recognized in others by means of agreed upon equivalences of documents of education.

Indeed this approach, which emphasizes the mutual will to recognize documents of education, is favoured by the Unesco convention for European countries. From the formal point of view, the Prague convention of socialist countries is somewhat more complete as it tends to favour the granting of equivalences for particular types of diplomas by means of the assessement of obligatory requirements. Here, however, one should bear in mind that the signatories to the convention generally have similar systems of higher education. Additionally, they have also made bilateral agreements providing for the compatibility of particular types of documents of education including the secondary-school graduation diplomas that confer eligibility for admission to universities.

The bilateral agreements were signed only after the programmes of studies and the diplomas concerned had been analysed. The agreements in question specify which higher education documents the signatories will recognise as being equal. Thus, the conception of recognition embodied in the Prague Convention is close to the notion of real equivalency as defined above since it takes into account the results of comparative studies made relative to the programmes and the diplomas of higher education systems in all the signatory countries.

2.2. *Tertiary Education and Higher Education*

One of the basic requirements for making proper decisions on questions concerning the recognition of studies and diplomas in higher education is that of being able to distinguish between categories of tertiary education in general and higher education, in particular in given countries. The distinction is of course an eternal issue of discussion among those who deal with problems of equivalence. A resolution of the issue requires that precise questions be asked and that no less precise answers be given. Are the expressions *tertiary education* and *higher education* synonymous? If not, what tertiary level education institutions are incorporated in the higher education systems of given countries? Actually, an answer to the question of what remains outside the higher education system is, from the view point of comparative studies, as important as the former question of what is included in the system.

For example, in most of the socialist countries the expressions *third level of education (tertiary education)* and *higher education* are not synonymous. Although higher education constitutes a part of tertiary education, it is separated from the rest of it by various barriers. On the other hand, the two categories are the same in countries in which the tertiary level is made up exclusively of higher education institutions.

According to the ISCED system of classification, the entire tertiary level of education occupies levels 5, 6, and 7. Higher education is restricted to levels 6 and 7. Level 5, according to this scheme, is reserved for post-secondary institutions which do not qualify as higher education institutions. Statistics compiled by Unesco, the Soviet Union, and Czechoslovakia, as examples, list large numbers of students at levels 6 and 7 but none at level 5. Poland, on the other hand, offers secondary school graduates the possibility of enrolling in two- and three-year post-secondary institutions which offer training in particular vocations including medical analysis and computers. The students and graduates in question are listed at level 5 in the ISCED classification.

Moreover, students in and graduates of such schools are not eligible to enroll directly in higher education institutions. They are required, similarly to secondary school graduates, to take and to pass the same entrance examination in order to enroll in higher education.

The graduates of post-secondary schools receive diplomas after passing their final examinations. Bearers of such diplomas are able to prove that they have graduated from 11- or 12-year secondary programmes which they have supplemented with additional two- or three-year post-secondary school programmes, thus suggesting that in terms of length of studies they have acquired a sort of higher education qualification even when in fact this has not been the case.

What we have tried to demonstrate here is that so far as the diplomas are concerned, the number of years of studies should be carefully weighed in view of what kind of education institutions the tertiary institutions in question actually are. The problem indeed is illustrative of one of the numerous traps which one comes across with regard to the procedures required for recognizing higher education studies and diplomas.

2.3. *Higher Education — University Education — Non-university Education*

Throughout the professional literature, the term, "university education", is given two different meanings: 1) to designate any education offered at university level; 2) to designate a full programme of university cycle education (a minimum of 4 years of study). The latter meaning of the term, *university-level education,* is particularly adequate when referring to the higher education systems of certain countries. However, the question which immediately emerges is that of what exactly should be meant by the designation of *university level* and *non-university level* in higher education.

Is the division into *university* and *non-university* education an internal affair peculiar to each higher education institution or is it a question of overall institutional specialization? In the former case, the given higher education institution would be in a position to issue diplomas of various types. In fact, both types of higher education institutions exist.

To focus on the socialist countries, the respective systems of higher education are uniform, barring minor exceptions. The institutions offering full university cycle education include both universities and other types of institutes that were originally derived from universities (medical schools, agricultural institutes, and academies of economics) as well as higher education institutions specializing in the technical sciences, like polytechnics and technological institutes [2]. Study programmes in all of the above institutions lead to university-level diplomas.

In the socialist countries, graduates of the various types of higher education institutions receive university level diplomas which are considered equal regardless of the type of institution attended.

The structures of higher education systems in some other countries include higher institutions that do not have academic (university) status. Studies in these cases are concluded by the award of first-degree diplomas (as in the case of higher vocational schools). Moreover, certain full university cycle institutions have acquired the right to confer vocational diplomas upon completion of first-cycle studies (vocational education). However, these diplomas are nevertheless considered to be higher education diplomas. After receiving a first-degree diploma (concluding the first cycle), a student may continue studying in order to receive a subsequent university-level diploma.

The aim of this relatively detailed presentation has been to explain and to illustrate the fact that many of the difficulties which arise in the course of studying higher education diplomas with the aim of granting specific equivalences arise when one cannot be absolutely sure as to their level. The solution to the problem is one of establishing criteria which permit a differentiation between higher vocational school graduate diplomas and university-level higher education, and both of these from other types of tertiary level diplomas. As stated above, the number of years of study is a doubtful criterion to apply when making an assessment. The difficulty increases if we consider that many countries have tertiary institutions which issue diplomas representing various levels of education. Neither the number of years of study nor the school's name are of much help in recognizing the true level of education obtained. As an example, difficulties arise when foreign students who have earned various types of diplomas for short-cycle courses taken in various types of colleges functioning within higher education institutions in Western Europe wish to continue their education in the higher education institutions of the socialist countries.

2.4. *Access to Higher Education*

Information as to how one gains access to higher education programmes leading to specific diplomas is also essential for making correct judgments as to equivalences, particularly with regard to the evaluation of given stages of education which are to be followed by studies in another country. Without taking a stand on the relative merits of open, closed, or mixed systems of admission, the argument can be made that there is little chance that graduates who have had to pass admission examinations in order to be admitted to higher education will be less qualified, on the whole, than those who have been admitted without such testing.

The conditions of access to higher education systems undergo modifications rather frequently as partial or comprehensive changes are made in educational policies. Moreover, pressure brought to bear by various social groups may lead to special arrangements for the admission of certain groups of students (positive discrimination). The result in given countries is that graduates will display great diversity as to their levels of knowledge and their vocational experience.

2.5. *Vocational Experience of Higher Education Graduates*

Another factor to be weighed and one which contributes to the difficulties involved in the recognition and the comparison of diplomas is the vocational experience of higher education graduates. The problem as a whole includes several sub-issues including that of documenting the requirements for vocational experience set by particular branches of education, the satisfaction of the requirements, and ways by which they can be stated in higher education graduate diplomas. Different types of requirements for vocational experience exist in different countries. Some countries require students to have had some employment experience before enrolling full-time in higher education. In the socialist countries, individuals who want to enroll as part-time students must have had one year of prior employment. Many study programmes such as those leading to degrees in medicine, veterinary science, agriculture, pedagogy, and engineering, include vocational and graduate practical training as well as the mandatory holding of a junior position upon graduation. Obviously, the way practical training is conducted influences the level of a graduate's qualifications and of his diploma. This question may not be particularly important in the case of graduates who are employed in the countries in which they have studied; however, it becomes significant when they take up jobs in other countries. If the recognition of a diploma is linked to authorization to exercise a profession, detailed information concerning vocational experience is required.

2.6. *Rights Attached to a Diploma*

Obtaining a higher education diploma gives rights of a dual character. First, it permits the bearer to continue his studies at the subsequent level. Second, it imparts to its bearer the qualifications necessary for working in a specified profession. In this respect, however, the situation differs from country to country. The opportunity to be employed in a given profession is determined (apart from the labour market situation) in several countries by specific requirements, for example, success on additional examinations, the acquisition of additional qualifications, and an apprenticeship or a probationary period of work. Foreigners may be subjected to additional requirements like language proficiency tests. Because a graduate who requests that his diploma be recognized abroad usually does so in connection with an application for employment, he needs to be provided with information relative to the additional conditions which he will have to meet in order to exercise his profession in the country of his choice.

3. Directions for Future Efforts in the Area of Recognition of Studies and Diplomas

3.1. *Scope of Information*

Experience has shown that although the fund of knowledge available in different countries on one another's higher education systems is considerable, it often remains insufficient for purposes of granting equivalences for studies and diplomas. In fact, the information available is overly general; whereas the solution of problems of recognition and equivalence requires very definite and detailed information on specific aspects of the higher education systems of various countries. The knowledge gap is bridged to some extent by answers to the questions included in the forms used by the Regional Committee for the implementation of the Unesco European Convention. This information is nevertheless insufficient for doing research and for producing comparative studies, because the answers that come from certain countries are very laconic and because certain countries fail to file the forms.

The problem of having appropriate information on hand for the recognition of studies and diplomas should be settled in two parallel ways. A supplement should be included with every diploma or stage-of-studies certificate giving basic information about the studies being certified and about specific national requirements for certification. For purposes of research, a body of knowledge on questions of equivalence and recognition of diplomas needs to be established sufficient for carrying out studies and made available both to organizations dealing with the recognition of diplomas and to researchers studying these problems.

Already Carin Berg, the President of the European Regional Committee, and Professor Ulrich Teichler, an OECD expert in the field of equivalences, have prepared a standard supplement for diplomas of higher education (see article by C. Berg and U. Teichler, pp . 13—24). It will be discussed at the next meeting of the Regional Committee to be held in 1988. If the European countries could agree on a standardized supplement to diplomas, they would settle many of the practical problems of recognition.

However, since agreement will probably not be reached in the near future, it is perhaps worthwhile turning to less commonly known sources of information. One example of such a source is the student book that every student receives, in many countries, including the socialist countries. Each student's course of studies is recorded in detail, including the subjects of lectures, classes, and seminars; the numbers of hours per semester; the grades received on examinations; credits awarded; the final grade scored on the graduate examination; and the duration and the places of practical training.

In many countries, foreign students receive special supplements to their diplomas upon graduation. Each supplement describes the courses which the student has taken, the grades received in particular subjects, the title of the diploma thesis, the grade earned on the diploma examination, etc. The formats of these supplements and the information which they give vary from country to country but the fact that they exist is important, for they constitute an excellent source of information.

3.2. *Scope of Applied Terminology*

The doubts expressed in the first part of this article with respect to terminology are not only directed at such expressions as *tertiary level of education*, *higher education system*, and *non-university education*, but also at the whole question of standardized terminology. Full standardization in the Europe Region would eliminate most incidences of misinterpretation as to levels of education and of diplomas. The forthcoming CEPES publication, *Terminology of Higher Education in Europe*, may be a major stimulus to such standardization.

3.3. *Applicability of the ISCED System of Classification*

Unesco's ISCED system of classification of types of education, although at the basis of the compilation of Unesco statistics on education, is relatively little used for the recognition of studies and diplomas. Were the classification system accurately understood and applied by the individual countries to define various levels of education or the completion of specific stages of studies, it would significantly facilitate the recognition of studies and diplomas.

3.4. *Utilization of Information Contained in Bilateral Agreements*

In fact, questions of recognition pose few problems for graduates who in addition to presenting a diploma can also present a student book and a diploma supplement as described above, particularly, if he is remaining within the orbit of similar higher education systems like those of the English-speaking countries, the francophone countries, or the socialist countries. Still, it is worthwhile turning to another aid — the bilateral agreements linking particular countries providing for the recognition of diplomas and other educational documents. According to these agreements, some of which predate the Second World War, given countries have defined the conditions whereby they will grant to foreign credentials equality with their educational documents at specific levels of study. Such agreements can be extended by analogy to other parties. The texts of all the current bilateral agreements between European countries relative to equivalence and recognition of studies and diplomas should be made available to all authorities responsible for decisions on these matters.

4. Conclusions

Despite the difficulties still remaining with regard to the theory and the practice of equivalence of studies and diplomas, firm progress is being made in Europe towards the creation of accepted procedures for bringing about the recognition of foreign credentials and the granting of equivalences. What is regrettable is the number of countries that so far have not ratified the European convention. Research on questions of equivalence has been invigorated but still suffers from lack of available and appropriate information, but this is the case in many areas of higher education research. We hope that this situation can be remedied in the near future. In particular, we hope that one of the numerous organizations which specializes in the gathering of information on higher education will further specialize in the collection of data necessary for the compilation of studies on the equivalence of studies and diplomas in the European countries.

NOTES

1. International Symposium on "Problems in Comparing Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees of Higher Education", Leipzig, the German Democratic Republic, July 7—12, 1986.
2. To this group can be added higher schools of pedagogy, of the arts, and of theology, as well as marine academies.

UNVEILING THE HIDDEN INFORMATION IN CREDENTIALS: A PROPOSAL TO INTRODUCE A "SUPPLEMENT TO HIGHER EDUCATION DIPLOMAS"

Carin BERG and *Ulrich TEICHLER*

As the world shrinks and becomes increasingly integrated with regard to the diffusion of technologies, the flow of educated personnel and the requirements both of higher education institutions and of employers, the twin questions of educational mobility and of mobility with regard to employment, are becoming increasingly important. A major barrier to the granting of equivalences is lack of information about the meaning and the value of academic credentials, diplomas, and degrees despite the creation of information centres in various countries and the formulation of various international equivalence agreements, including the Unesco regional conventions on equivalence and the recognition of diplomas and degrees of higher education. Programmes diversify; they undergo rapid change; there are so many exceptional cases, that general information devices cannot keep up to date. What the authors propose and describe is a supplement to be granted with each diploma, the items within it being sufficiently standardized so as to make the value of each corresponding diploma and credential transparent enough to facilitate the granting of equivalences.

I. Introduction

A broad consensus exists in Europe that international mobility in higher education and occupational mobility of graduates have played roles of increasing importance in the last two decades and will play even more important roles in the future. Therefore, institutions of higher education are expected, to an increasing extent, to receive foreign students who intend to complete course programmes, which they have already begun somewhere else, to take advanced course programmes abroad, and even to follow complete study programmes in countries other than those in which they acquired the necessary prerequisites. Also, employers are being challenged to an increasing extent to recruit persons who have acquired parts or all of their education in other countries.

At present these students and graduates face substantial barriers to mobility including difficulties in gaining recognition of foreign credentials. So far as these difficulties are of a political nature — such as the case of professions open exclusively to nationals with national diplomas — only changes in the relevant laws and regulations will bring about appropriate solutions. However, many of the problems which students and graduates are facing in connection with recognition are coincidental. They are related to the lack of information about their studies, specifically to the elliptical nature of the information given in diplomas of higher education.

The process of educational expansion as well as new societal needs have brought about a diversification in the higher education systems of many

European countries. Varied patterns of institutions and course programmes have been chosen in different countries to meet those challenges. New interdisciplinary programmes have been established: an increasingly broad range of vocational subjects and degrees has been added to the range of academic subjects; the differentiation of knowledge has led to new specialized course programmes; short course programmes have been established to encourage the previously disadvantaged as well as to meet the need for lifelong education. All these developments have contributed, at least on the surface, to a bewildering diversity of higher education institutions, course programmes, and credentials which are barely understood by experts within the given countries and even less by potential "receivers" of graduates and students, be they from within the countries in question or from abroad.

The existing documents certifying the successful completion of courses have not kept pace with these changes. On the contrary, they continue, only too frequently, to be drawn up in ways which obviously have only the insider in mind. Some documents certifying the award of a degree only mention the institution awarding the degree, the name of the graduate, and the date the degree was awarded. Others may additionally address the broad disciplinary areas upon which the student focussed his studies. Still others, while naming specific fields, do not provide information as to grades. Most credentials barely refer to the duration of studies. In many cases, titles are misunderstood in international contexts as in the cases of "Dottore" or "Dottoressa" in Italy, "Doctorandus" in the Netherlands, and "Doctor" in Czechoslovakia, all of which, being conferred upon the completion of a first degree in the respective countries, are not, as might be believed, advanced, research-oriented academic degrees.

Misunderstandings regarding the academic and professional value of higher education diplomas are more likely to occur nowadays than ever before. At the same time, the correct interpretation of credentials, national or foreign, has become increasingly important both because of the growing formalization of admission to higher education at different levels and because of the decisive role credentials play in careers.

In recent years, therefore, efforts have been intensified at various levels to overcome obstacles to the recognition of diplomas so as to promote international mobility in education and in employment. Various international organizations in the Europe Region address these issues, notably Unesco, the Council of Europe, and the European Community.

Various approaches have been chosen in order to facilitate mobility: the conclusion of conventions; the standardization of higher education systems; agreements on equivalences; comparative evaluations; improved information systems on studies, diplomas, and degrees; creation of national information bodies on academic recognition.

Valuable as these activities may be, their effectiveness is limited by the lack of basic information about course programmes, credentials, and the individual study courses of students. The aim of this article is to put forward the view that efforts to provide documents with internationally transparent information relative to the qualifications acquired by individual students and graduates constitute an important step towards the reduction of obstacles to international mobility in education and in employment.

II. Achievements and Limitations of Various Measures Taken Within the Context of Higher Education to Facilitate Mobility

Obviously, obstacles to mobility in education and employment cannot only be attributed to organizational questions within higher education, nor can the obstacles in question be eliminated by organizational measures alone, important though they be. To promote mobility in higher education, a variety of actions is needed. Although many such actions have already been undertaken or are developing as already mentioned, they are helpful but not sufficient for purposes of recognition.

The concluding of conventions on recognition and mobility is important for several reasons. The conventions attract attention to inherent problems, and they create, for the ratifying parties, a moral obligation to solve the problems in question and to support measures to promote recognition and mobility. By their very nature, however, conventions are frameworks which cannot, given their nature, solve detailed problems. These must be dealt with in other ways.

Methods of standardization can help to reduce those peculiarities of courses, assessment methods, credentials, etc., which happen to emerge as a result of a lack of coordination devices even when genuine diversity is not present. Within any country, emerging diversity will be subject to evaluation after a given period so as to determine whether or not functionally similar course programmes and credentials might not be labelled identically or whether marginal differences might not be abolished in order to justify identical labelling. Such standardization is considered beneficial in terms of reducing uncertainty among prospective students, institutions of education, employers, etc. If international mobility in education and employment gains importance, efforts in favour of standardization will naturally become a focus of attention in international co-operation. Both limitations on the power to standardize internationally and the value placed on diversity in higher education systems — which is one of the attractions of international mobility in higher education — will keep the impact of efforts in favour of international standardization in bounds.

Agreements on equivalences are instrumental in guaranteeing mobility in spite of diversity in higher education systems. Differences in course programmes are accepted, but an "exchange rate" is determined. A student should not run the risk of being refused acceptance in another country as the result of individualized decisions; rather, he should be certain as to the correct assessment of his studies and credentials. Multinational equivalence agreements, however, continue to be relatively vague and to exclude the most difficult equivalence issues. Bilateral equivalence agreements may be more far-reaching, but again, they tend to solve only the most obvious "atypical" cases.

For these reasons, the importance of establishing an improved information system is enhanced. Information systems on studies, diplomas, and degrees existing and operating in the context of international mobility (for example, handbooks and other publications) serve a dual function vis-à-vis international standardization and equivalence agreements. On the one hand, they give information about them and interpret them by means of detailed explanations with regard to which studies correspond to which credentials in terms of framework regulations established in the context of efforts favouring standardization and equivalence. On the other hand, they attempt to fill in the gap for exceptional cases including those not covered by equivalence agreements. Both the diversity of cases which have to be subsumed to established frameworks as well as the even larger number not covered by such frameworks underscore the importance of information. One should, therefore, not be surprised to observe that most efforts in support of international co-operation for increased international mobility in education and employment focus on these issues.

Information systems which already play an important role in facilitating mobility are certainly going to be improved in the near future. But for reasons to be discussed below, the information systems in question are bound to be incomplete and imperfect given the existing diversity and flexibility of higher education and credentials systems and the rapid innovation occurring in course programmes, all of which are increasing the numbers of "atypical" cases.

The creation of national bodies for information on academic recognition has proved to be most valuable as a means for deepening knowledge of education in other countries. Close contacts among experts in the various centres help establish mutual confidence in the quality of education in the European countries. But even these experts have great difficulty in evaluating given credentials because of the lack of information contained in diplomas and certificates.

We share the view that measures for improving the transmission of information pertinent to the recognition of studies and credentials are crucial for facilitating mobility and therefore deserve special attention. A more detailed discussion of the existing information system might explain why we are favouring a new concept in this domain.

III. Problems with Regard to General Information Devices for the Comparison of Studies and Credentials

In spite of significant achievements and trends favouring further improvement, we note some shortcomings in the general information devices, such as handbooks, computerized information systems, etc., used for comparing studies and credentials:

1. Such general information devices concerned with studies and credentials in the European countries tend to consider only the current "normal" course programmes and credentials. Lack of information cannot be avoided with regard notably to:

— small subject areas;
— exceptional programmes within disciplines;
— interdisciplinary programmes;
— newly emerged, innovative programmes;
— programmes and credentials that have been phased out or are in the process of being phased out;
— programmes not leading to regular degrees.

Even if handbooks become more sophisticated and detailed in the future, for example through the introduction of computerized information systems, such limitations will nevertheless be unavoidable due to the great flexibility of higher education programmes.

2. Existing handbooks tend to be oriented primarily towards mobility in education, neglecting mobility in employment. There are differences in accessibility to information centres — either *de jure* or *de facto*. More notably, however, information on many employment-related issues — for example, work experience gained prior to or during the course of study, the participation of employment systems in the establishment and accreditation of courses, and the role played by higher education credentials in given countries regarding access to professions, tends to be missing or to be insufficiently provided.

3. Handbooks and computerized information systems on higher education abroad serve the purpose of explaining systems, but they are not necessarily sufficient for describing the competences of individual students or graduates. The qualifications of the latter are best explained by information as to whether or not course and examination regulations rigidly determine the learning and the competences of students and whether or not the students faithfully gear their studies accordingly.

If, however, some flexibility of learning is provided for students or they are permitted to choose atypical ways of learning, their qualifications will not be adequately portrayed by descriptions of the systems themselves. Certainly, efforts can be made to give credit for individually acquired qualifications, but in many cases, insufficient attention to such phenomena can hardly be avoided.

4. Information issues can play very critical roles as potential barriers to mobility in education and in employment not only as a result of problems related to the comparability of different course programmes and credentials but because of the all-too-brief information provided in many credentials. A major function of information centres and of other agencies handling foreign credentials is the decoding of their mysteries. The more cryptic credentials are, the more indispensable the services of such centres become. Even experts may have trouble assessing certain credentials appropriately due to the very small amount of information which they provide. Even within given countries, credentials may provoke misunderstandings, being symbolic rather than informative, and serving the insider rather than a larger range of interested persons and agencies. In international contexts, this situation may create more or less insurmountable barriers to mobility.

5. In some cases, the gaps between the information provided by credentials and the information required by institutions of higher education which are considering students from abroad for admission and employers who are considering employing persons having graduated from foreign institutions can be furnished by means of supplementary statements which degree-granting institutions of higher education can provide upon request. Such a system, however, might pose problems. Administrative insufficiencies, political barriers (in the case of refugees, etc.) and other difficulties can prevent a later supplementation of information.

IV. Rationales for the Proposal to Introduce a "Diploma Supplement"

Many of the problems described above, which are inherent in the existing information systems, could be alleviated substantially if institutions of higher education issued a "supplement" along with the usual official credentials

— a supplement which would provide basic information on the respective credential.

Such a supplement would:

— indicate the character of the course programme and of the credential in such a way as to facilitate evaluation and comparison with regard to corresponding education in another country;

— explain the qualifications of the person having been awarded the given credential, even if they are not closely in tune with the underlying, typical course programme;

— provide basic information of particular relevance to employing agencies.

The supplement would be of great help to information centres or similar agencies charged with the expert assessment of foreign credentials, particularly in assisting them in doing justice to complicated cases. At the same time, it would facilitate the decoding of credentials, which should in principle be easily understood, by increasing the quantity of information contained in the credentials themselves.

The "Diploma Supplement" should preferably be issued to students, along with the diploma, when they graduate. At this moment, and more so now than later, all the necessary information is easily accessible. Thus, students would be free to use their supplements according to their needs, making legalized copies to attach to job applications or to requests for academic recognition. By such means, problems regarding the release of confidential data could be avoided, as it would be the students themselves who would make their supplements available to other institutions or persons.

In order to serve its intended purpose, the supplement should provide information on a certain range of items including details about the person being granted the diploma, the institution(s) providing the course programme and awarding the diploma(s), the diploma document itself, entrance requirements, studies undertaken, grades earned, and finally, the academic and professional rights acquired by the award of the diploma.

However, a too lengthy or a too complicated formula should be avoided; otherwise, the supplement is unlikely to be generally adopted throughout all European institutions of higher education. Providing the information in question should require only a little extra effort on the part of the institutions concerned as it is to be furnished along with the diploma at a time when it is easily available. That it is not so provided in such a manner today is the result of tradition or of the fact that the need for it has not been perceived.

The supplement should avoid requiring an overly complicated categorization of information for unduly difficult assessments could lead to heterogeneous ways of supplying information as well as to a lack of co-operation in its provision. In some cases, however, like that regarding types of degrees, the classification of information will be unavoidable. If more than one diploma were provided upon completion of an identical course programme (for example, a national diploma and a certificate issued by a given institution of higher education) only one supplement would, of course, be needed.

The supplement should be accompanied by an explanatory note addressed to the recipients of the information thus helping to improve the valid provisions of information as well as the establishment and the understanding of a common terminology.

V. The Categories Suggested for Incorporation in the "Diploma Supplement"

A. *Personal Data*

Basic information about the person to whom the diploma has been awarded should be provided in a first section of the supplement. The statement of family name, given name(s), and date of birth are usually sufficient for identifying the person as well as for matching the supplement, including the certification at its end, with the corresponding diploma.

B. *Institutional Data*

In identifying the institutional basis of a higher education diploma, it may not be sufficient to state the name of the institution in which the student was enrolled. An additional category stating the diploma-granting authority is required if the authority in question is not the institution that provided the course programme. Sometimes even a diploma can be awarded jointly by two institutions.

A student might transfer from one institution of higher education to another during his period of enrollment in a given course programme. Today student mobility is encouraged and receives support. Increasing numbers of students have thus studied at several institutions. However, only the institution which testifies the completion of the course programme ought to be mentioned in the supplement, for this institution is the one usually considered to have been the most influential both in shaping the students' qualification and in determining the institutional prestige of a given credential.

C. *Diploma Data*

In describing the diploma, one must begin by taking into account the fact that in some cases the completion of a course programme or of a final examination is given a different name than that of the title conferred upon completion. In Italy, for example, undergraduate studies lead to the degree of Laurea, whereby the title *Dottore* or *Dottoressa* is conferred. In some cases, abbreviated titles are common, such as "drs." for the Dutch "doctorandus" and "dr." for "doctor".

Second, one would need some statement as to the type of course programme the graduate has followed. Although this information should be given in terms of the national system of higher education, some kind of typology would be useful in order to understand its character. For example, we find in each country an understanding as to what a first regular university degree means even if the English "bachelor", the Scottish "master", the Danish "candidatus", and the "Diplom" conferred in the Federal Republic of Germany are not considered equivalent. Phrases like "University/Non-University/First degree/Advanced degree/Special programme/Further studies" might be useful in standardizing the description.

Third, we suggest that the date of final completion of the course programme/final examination be stated because, in some cases, a time span of a year or even more elapses between formal completion and the award of the diploma.

Finally, as suggested above, other formal diplomas which were awarded jointly upon completion of the studies leading to the diploma to which the "Supplement" is primarily addressed should be stated. These diplomas would include university certificates, degrees conferred by other degree-granting institutions, and national diplomas conferred in addition to legally recognized degrees.

D. *Entrance Requirements*

Entrance requirements are among the most important indicators of the level and the quality of course programmes in higher education. It is very difficult, however, to find a yardstick considered appropriate for measuring these requirements in all the countries of the Europe Region. Some countries give particular importance to the type of prior institution or course programme. Others stress additional selection criteria and methods such as grades and admission test points. However, the range of kinds of prior schooling providing eligibility for given course programmes is so broad that it is hardly possible anymore to establish any "typical" access routes. We nevertheless believe that two indicators are particularly suitable for appropriately describing the educational prerequisites of higher education course programmes at universities in the Europe Region:

— Years of prior schooling: Total number of years of prior schooling required for admission to the course programme to which the diploma refers.

— Name of school-leaving certificate or diploma marking the end of preceding education: If no particular name is used, the type of institution or course programme should be stated. In the case of graduate courses, the undergraduate diploma should be stated. If various certificates or diplomas are accepted as entrance requirements, the one which is the most indicative of the entrance requirements for the course programme under consideration (in contrast to other course programmes in higher education) should be stated.

Both indicators should refer to typical entrance requirements, not to the specific qualifications of the given individual, for it is the typical level of prior education, not the de facto educational career of given individuals, that has the greatest impact on the value of a diploma.

E. *Study Organization*

Among various characteristics of course programmes, the overall formal course length is an important indicator. We suggest that the period of study officially required in order to complete a course programme be stated but not the period the student has actually spent studying. The former contributes to a description of the requirements of the programmes while the latter describes individual differences of study behaviour within a given framework. (One has to admit, however, that the borderline is fluid; in many cases a "de facto course length" has emerged, which, although not formally binding, has become more-or-less mandatory.) The overall formal course length includes possible practical periods, if they are counted as terms, semesters, etc., as well as examination periods.

The type of study (whether full-time, part-time, or distance study) should be stated in the supplement, because part-time and distance courses often require extended periods of study in order to acquire the same competences as those acquired by means of full-time study over a normal time span.

F. *Contents of Studies*

A short statement of the field of study is complicated by the fact that the corresponding information included in diplomas in the Europe Region may refer to major groups of fields of studies (for example, the BSc), to individual disciplines (for example, engineering), to generally established subdisciplines (for example, mechanical engineering) and to even smaller areas.

Also, practices vary with regard to the consideration of one or two fields as majors, to provisions for choosing areas of emphasis or of specialization, or for covering the major in a broad way, as well as with regard to the consideration of certain fields as minors or as integral parts of a broad discipline (for example, sociology courses taken within the framework of an economics course programme can be viewed as minors or as forming an integral part of economics like the role of mathematics in engineering courses).

We suggest the introduction of the category, "major field(s) of study/ areas of emphasis". No more than one field should be stated in this category unless the diploma stresses that equal weight is being given to two or three fields (for example, teacher training in two subjects).

The information provided in this section ought to give details about the knowledge and the achievements of the graduate. If possible, a list of all individual courses and the respective grades should be provided, particularly in the case of certain countries in which, traditionally, only courses or subjects of examinations have been recorded.

In this connection, the weight placed on respective areas/subjects/courses should also be stated. In addition, the customary way of calculation should be presented, including a statement of the proportion which is given to various parts of examination subjects in the calculation of overall grades, the number of credits required for graduation, weekly hours, etc. Of course, an explanation of the system applied must be included.

As the title of a thesis is generally one of the most important indicators of the area in which a graduate has acquired in-depth knowledge, it should be stated, or if "no thesis [was] required" and the student was conferred a diploma without any thesis, that fact too should be stated. The workload should be indicated but not with reference to the period from the beginning of the course programme to the submission of the thesis, but rather in terms of the calculated time allotted for writing the thesis.

G. *Practical Period*

Information on practical periods has significance in this framework, as the number of course programmes requiring practical work as a more or less integrated part of overall study programmes has increased substantially in recent years. As the supplement should not only ease academic but also professional mobility, practical periods obviously play an important role in the latter context.

The actual duration of practical period(s), which are required or encouraged prior to the granting of the diploma and which are not part of prior educational stages or take place following graduation, should be stated.

It would be helpful to disassociate periods of practical work which fit in with the overall length of course programmes and other practical periods which are not included in overall formal course length. The length of the latter, if they are mandatory, should be stated if their completion requires a prolonged overall period between admission and completion of the course programme even if they are not counted as parts of the overall formal course length.

H. *Grading Scheme*

Grading schemes also display a "bewildering diversity". Grades, for example, can be given to overall course programmes, to major components of course programmes, and to individual study units. Therefore, overall grades can refer to final examinations, to a mix of final examinations and prior course examinations, or only to grades acquired within the context of individual study units. Grades can aim at covering achievement during the overall study period or only that realized during later stages of the study period. We suggest that information relative to what is normally recorded at the concerned institution of higher education should be recorded.

Grades can only be understood if basic information about the grading system is also provided. Such information could include, when applicable:

— the grading scale (for example, 1 = "very good", 4 = "pass", 5 = "fail");

— the distribution of grades (for example, if a degree "with distinction" refers to a certain percentage of students or if a grading scale of 100 points refers to the rankings of the respective pool of students);

— the respective weight given to final examinations and to various fields/areas of emphasis, etc. within the framework of the overall grade given.

I. *Rights Acquired* (Academic and Professional Rights)

Diplomas not only certify completion of a study programme but may also determine options for further studies as well as for professional activity. The example can be cited of one country in which a diploma awarded at the end of a non-university level higher education programme only entitles its holder to enroll in an undergraduate programme in the corresponding field. A degree awarded by a university, for example in architecture, might give access to the corresponding profession in one country, whereas in another country a graduate might have to pass a professional licensing examination in order to acquire the same professional rights.

Information on professional rights should refer to typical career possibilities. For example, information relative to a diploma in architecture should refer to the career of a professional architect, not to that of a teacher in a vocational school. Since such a choice is not obvious in all cases, the supplement should state the profession to which the information provided refers.

The concept of academic rights should refer as much to admission to undergraduate studies (if the person concerned was awarded a non-university diploma) as to elegibility for admission to a doctoral course programme, etc.

A diploma supplement should receive the same kind of certification as a regular diploma (signature, name, and capacity of signatory, institution, date, etc.). As it is aimed at informing a broader range of people than merely insiders, the information about the capacity of the signatory and about the institution should be stated in such a clear way that identification is possible with the aid of reference books.

VI. Conclusions

As we see it, the introduction of a diploma supplement of the kind which we have described would be of substantial help in overcoming difficulties regarding recognition and would hence be an aid to the international mobility of students, graduates, and professionals.

We have referred to the diversity of higher education in Europe. Although it exists, it must not be exaggerated. The European universities share a common past from which they have all developed. The goal of university education is the same throughout Europe: to achieve a blend of advanced knowledge and methodology leading to the ability to undertake independent research. Even if new higher education programmes are frequently geared more to professional life than to further graduate studies, the keywords remain the same: advanced knowledge, methodology, and independent work.

Thus the importance of differences should not be exaggerated but be seen as different paths leading to the same goal. As such, they are both an attraction and a stimulant for students and teachers.

Consciousness of underlying similarities rather than of differences should be the generator of trust and confidence without which the recognition of foreign credentials is not possible. If such a spirit of confidence prevails, improved information by means of a diploma supplement will be a powerful device for ensuring recognition and will thus promote international educational and professional mobility.

DIPLOMA SUPPLEMENT

1. Family name

2. Given name(s)

3. Date of birth (day/month/year)

4. Educational establishment

5. Degree awarded by

6. Name of diploma

7. Title conferred

8. Type of programme

9. Overall grade

10. Length of programme

11. Type of study

12. Field of study

13. Practical period

14. Academic rights

15. Professional rights

16. Date of admission

17. Date of final examination

18. Complementary diploma

PROGRAMME CONSISTED OF THE FOLLOWING COURSES/SUBJECTS/EXAMINATIONS

19. **a) Name of subjects/courses/examinations**	b) **Workload** Units/Credits/Weekly hours	c) Grade

(to be continued on second page if necessary)

20. **Exemptions/Prior credits**

21. **a) Title of thesis** b) Workload c) Grade

22. **Certification**

a) Date b) Signature c) Capacity d) Stamp

COMPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

A. Type of establishment

B. Entrance requirements

C. Programme requirements

D. Workload

E. System of examination

F. Grading scheme

INTERNATIONAL RECOGNITION OF STUDIES, DIPLOMAS, AND DEGREES AS SEEN FROM AN AMERICAN PERSPECTIVE

Karlene N. DICKEY

The aim of this article is to describe the sources of information on foreign education systems and credentials by means of which the various higher education institutions of the United States reach decisions as to the admission of foreign students and the granting of equivalences for degrees earned abroad. The information is derived from a number of sources, particularly from such national volunteer and professional associations as the American Association of Collegiate Registrars (AACRAO) including a linkage which it maintains with the Agency for International Development (AID), the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials (The Council), the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), the National Liaison Committee on Foreign Student Admissions (NLC), and the National Association of Credential Evaluation Services (NACES). The article further explains how each of these organizations reaches decisions as to the value of given foreign credentials and makes its judgments and recommendations known to those who, in general, need this information, and to specific institutions which request specific information for specific purposes. In the final analysis, the organizations in question are purely advisory; the specific decisions with regard to specific students enrolled in specific higher education institutions are the sole purview of the institutions in question.

The United States has no federal ministry of education and no designated official organization to deal with equivalency of degrees. All universities and undergraduate colleges are independent and can make their own decisions as to admissions, transfer credit, and equivalency of prior education.

According to the latest issue of *Open Doors*, there were just under 350,000 international students enrolled in the United States in 1986–1987, in 2,518 institutions in first degree (undergraduate) and higher degree (graduate) programmes, as well as 25,000 students in Intensive English Language Programmes. (Fifty-two percent were at the first degree level; forty-two percent at the higher degree level; the rest (6%) in English language programmes, non-degree programmes, etc.) This total is larger than the tenfold increase since 1954 when 34,232 students were enrolled in 1,629 institutions.

The 1986–1987 population of students came from 115 countries. Such numbers present a challenge to admissions officers at the over 3,000 educational institutions in the United States. Each individual institution must reach a decision as to the adequacy of each applicant's background for the programme to which he is applying and, at the same time, the equivalency level of his background. As foreign students in increasing numbers have eagerly sought and continue to seek education in the United States, they present a challenge which has been met in the various ways described below.

Before discussing methods of obtaining information, a brief comment on the United States educational system is appropriate.

The United States is committed to a democratic form of education. All children are entitled to 12 years of free schooling, culminating in a high school diploma. Private schools are also available for parents who choose to pay for education, but these too follow an overall 12-year programme and also lead to a high school diploma. It is not the usual custom in the United States, as in many European countries, to track students into different types of higher secondary education in different types of institutions (e.g., *gymnasia, realschule*, vocational schools, etc.). All programmes can be pursued in one institution, called a "high school". Within many high schools, there are often many possible tracks. The top academic students will take advanced course work, even on occasion enrolling in university courses as part of their high school work, and sit for "advanced placement credit" to be credited to their subsequent university studies. Other students may follow a totally different programme within the same school, which may include training in secretarial skills, accounting, machine shop skills, or other vocational/technical trade programmes. This single educational system leading to one credential, the High School Diploma, is often difficult for overseas institutions and evaluation/recognition services to interpret and has probably led to some misunderstanding of the American interpretation of the *Abitur*, the Swiss *Maturität*, and other graduation certificates of European academic preparatory programmes.

American students who elect to continue studies beyond the high school diploma have a wide array of institutional choices. Tertiary studies in the U.S. are offered in small liberal arts colleges, religious colleges, state universities — concentrating on a wide range of subjects from classical archeology to agriculture — and major research universities. (In the United States, institutions offering only the *first* tertiary degree are generally known as colleges. Universities incorporate programmes in higher tertiary studies and in several disciplines (Faculties) e.g., Engineering, Education, Humanities, and Sciences etc.) From the point of view of an American high school graduate, most fields of tertiary (postsecondary) study are included within a college or a university programme.

Separate schools of social work, library science, psychology, etc., rarely exist outside of the formal structures of colleges and of universities.

Each tertiary institution must reach a decision as to its particular "mission". From this decision comes the further decision regarding the type of student the institution seeks to enroll. Highly selective universities seek the top scholars who followed advanced placement and honors courses in US high schools (students similar to those admitted to the federal/national universities in most European countries). Some state universities are mandated to offer admission to all high school graduates from the state who have achieved a certain minimal grade level. Small liberal arts colleges vary from being highly selective to being open to any high school graduate with the desire to enroll (and the funds to pay the tuition). This diversity naturally carries over into the admission of students who have had their prior educational experience outside the United States.

How is information obtained by these diverse admissions offices on the educational systems of the world? For many years a number of individuals in the United States have worked independently, or within private national organizations, to study the educational systems of the world and to make the results of their studies available to the academic community. In the last

20 years, this activity has become much more structured. Now a number of national organizations routinely publish information about educational systems and sponsor workshops at regional and national conferences. These are described below along with the kinds of information they make available. This article will not address in detail the recognition of professional degrees, e.g., Doctor of Medicine, Pharmacist and Nursing diplomas, etc. Professional societies which exist in all fields requiring licensure, make their own assessments as to the comparability of this type of training. In many instances, these societies depend heavily on the resources outlined below to reach their decisions.

American Association of Collegiate Registrars (AACRAO)

This organization has sponsored the World Education Series volumes, one of the leading resources in the field. Each volume covers a single country's educational system. Priority for work on particular countries is established by AACRAO and is based on the number of individuals coming from that country to the United States, adequacy of current information available on the educational system of the country, and the complexity of its educational system. Applications for authorship are solicited from members of AACRAO to undertake preparation of a volume on the educational system of a particular country.

Author selection is based on perceived qualification to prepare the material and experience in the field of admissions. Each author prepares a draft of the volume, covering all the educational aspects of a country: primary, secondary, university training, other tertiary level training, religious institutional training, vocational and technical training, etc. The author then visits the country for three to four weeks and meets with representatives of the ministry of education (where applicable), visits a number of universities, technical institutes, secondary schools, etc. All available written information about the educational system is collected, as well as sample copies, whenever possible, of educational credentials. The author then revises the draft, incorporating all the information obtained in the country. Appropriate sections are then returned to the representatives in the country with whom the issues were discussed for their review and correction. The author then draws up tentative "guidelines for admissions and placement" of holders of each credential in the United States educational system. The full manuscript and the tentative guidelines are then forwarded to the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials for review and final approval of the placement recommendations. The author is expected to make presentations on the country's educational system at regional and national meetings. The Council itself is described below.

The World Education Series has, at this writing, published volumes on nearly 40 countries. Changing educational policies, of course, make some of the material in these volumes out-of-date. AACRAO will attempt to redo a volume on a country having a large number of students and major alterations in its educational system. (For instance, this summer a new volume will be published on France to update the 1975 publication.) All the volumes are edited by a professional staff in the AACRAO office. All AACRAO member institutions in the U.S. and Canada receive at least one free copy. Additional copies may be purchased from the AACRAO Office.

AACRAO also regularly sponsors presentations on educational systems at regional conferences and at the annual national conference. At the National Conference in April, 1988, programmes will be offered on education in the United Kingdom, Japan, Canada, Bermuda, Hong Kong and Macao, Ireland, Brazil and Cuba, and Central America. In addition, an intensive 12-hour workshop will be held for new admissions officers on credential evaluation. There will also be a programme for experienced admissions officers during which difficult admissions issues will be discussed, e.g., placement of students with 10-year Philippine high school diplomas or students from the People's Republic of China who completed their education during the Cultural Revolution, etc.

AACRAO/Agency for International Development Project (AID)

The AACRAO/AID project has existed for a number of years and brings admissions professionals to the Office of International Training in the Washington D.C. office of the Agency for International Development (AID) to review applications for study in the United States from students in all countries in which AID has projects. The opportunity for exposure to this varied set of credentials and to work with some of the most experienced professionals in the field provides an outstanding learning experience in the evaluation of foreign credentials. The AACRAO/AID project also publishes material in this field, including the volume, *Foreign Educational Credentials Required for Consideration of Admission to Universities and Colleges in the United States* (Third Edition, April, 1985).

National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials (The Council)

The Council is an interassociational group that serves as a forum for developing consensus on the evaluation and the recognition of certificates, diplomas, and degrees awarded throughout the world. For placement in the U.S., it also assists in establishing priorities for research and publication of national, regional, and topical studies. One of its principal purposes is to review and to modify admissions and placement recommendations drafted by World Education Series authors, authors of PIER workshop reports, and others preparing information on educational systems who have requested reviews. The Council is made up of representatives of seven national organizations: The American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, The American Council on Education, The College Entrance Examination Board, The Council of Graduate Schools, The Institute of International Education, and the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs. Each organization selects representatives who are experienced in international admissions. Generally, representatives serve three-year terms. As can be seen from its membership, the Council, which is composed of representatives of the many diverse types of tertiary institutions in the U.S., attempts to keep a broad perspective on the issues so as to enable the group to reach consensuses on placement recommendations which meet the needs of the nonselective community colleges as well as the most selective research universities.

The Council members review each manuscript in detail prior to the meeting concerning it, sending written comments on the manuscript to the author. A principal goal of each reader is to ensure that the author's tentative placement recommendations are supported by the texts which describe the training leading to that recommendation. At the Council meeting, the appointed representatives meet with the author and review each placement recommendation and then formally vote on the final recommendations.

The Council recommendations are clearly identified as "recommendations". They are not binding on any institution. Indeed, it is an absolute obligation of each institution to review these recommendations in line with its own mission and admissions standards for United States students and to interpret them in light of the applicant's total academic record and of the programme to which the student is applying. However, the recommendations are used as guidelines by most institutions in the United States and Canada.

NAFSA/National Association of Foreign Student Affairs

NAFSA is another major private membership organization which is involved in publications, research projects, and activities, and annual and regional meetings on different aspects of foreign student mobility and exchange. Members of this association have prepared *A Guide to the Admission of Foreign Students* (revised edition, 1985), which provides basic information on the evaluation of foreign educational credentials and foreign admissions procedures and lists resources available to assist in the admission of foreign students. NAFSA also publishes the *Foreign Student Admissions Bibliography* (1985), which is a general list of publications on the admission of foreign students. Another major publication which includes profiles of the educational systems of more than 100 nations is *The Graduate Handbook*. A revised edition is due this spring and will be available from NAFSA at a modest price. This handbook is a very basic reference in the field of international admissions.

NAFSA also provides a "national evaluation service" for institutions which enroll less than 100 foreign students. A group of admissions professionals with specialized knowledge of educational systems of particular countries will review without cost applications from foreign students to one of these institutions and provide information to the institutions on the appropriateness of the backgrounds of given individuals for the courses of study which they are considering.

NAFSA also provides opportunities for disseminating updated information at regional meetings and at its annual conference on education systems. At the May, 1988, meeting there will be presentations on education in the People's Republic of China, on the *Fachhochschulen* in the Federal Republic of Germany, and on education in Malaysia and in Central America. There will also be training sessions for professional admissions officers. In addition, NAFSA publishes a monthly newsletter which is regularly used as a vehicle for disseminating information on educational systems.

Projects in International Education Research (PIER) is a joint project of NAFSA and AACRAO, which sponsors workshops on educational systems in various areas of the world. An experienced admissions officer is selected by the PIER committee as director for these workshops. This individual is responsible for raising funds for the project. Funding sources, in addition to the United States Information Agency and the United States Agency for International Development, include private foundations in the United States as well as overseas companies and governments. A group of admissions professionals are selected by the PIER committee. The group includes both experienced professionals as well as several who are newer to the field. It, therefore, serves as an outstanding training opportunity for admissions officers. After preparing a draft on the educational system of a given country or of a whole region, based on all available resources in the United States, workshop teams spend two weeks in the country or countries under study to visit institutions, ministries of education, etc., and then revise their draft. The manuscript is then sent to the National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials for review of the text and the final "admissions and placement recommendations". Participants are expected to make presentations at regional and national conferences.

In recent years, PIER projects have covered the admission and the academic placement of students from Bahrain, Oman, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, the Yemen Arab Republic (1984), Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka (1986), seven Central American countries (1988), Canada (publication in 1989). Planning is currently under way for three additional workshops in the following countries: 1) Hungary and Yugoslavia, 2) Poland, Czechozlovakia, and Bulgaria, and 3) The United Kingdom. The publications are distributed without charge to all members of NAFSA and are available at a modest charge from the NAFSA office.

NLC/National Liaison Committee on Foreign Student Admissions

NLC is a committee made up of two representatives for AACRAO, the College Board, the Council of Graduate Schools, the Institute of International Education, and NAFSA. It acts as a coordinating body and sponsor of international admissions activities and publications. A major project of NLC is to be of assistance in training U.S. overseas educational advisers who counsel students on study in the U.S. The *Overseas Educational Advisers' Manual* was published by the College Board in 1987. It describes among other items, education in the United States and United States admissions processes. By using the manual, American overseas educational advisers can better assist students overseas in selecting universities which offer programmes that meet their needs. These advisers must also have a full understanding of how the education of the country in which they are located is perceived by U.S. institutions. The many sources listed and described in this article are a valuable tool for these advisers.

NLC will be sponsoring two special colloquia/symposia in the next year or two. One will be on financing and the foreign student and the second on accreditation/national recognition of tertiary institutions in the U.S. and in other countries of the world. The latter symposium will include presentations by representatives from a number of other countries and will lead to a publication on what constitutes "recognition" of educational institutions and programmes worldwide.

NACES/National Association of Credential Evaluation Services

This association is an incorporated organization of private credential services. The group has established operating standards for such services. At present, eight member organizations exist. Each of these organizations maintains a library of information on educational systems of the world and has a trained staff of admissions professionals. Any individual or any institution may request evaluation of foreign educational credentials. A fee is charged for each evaluation. These organizations also publish and conduct training workshops to disseminate information on educational systems. One of the best known of these publications is *The Country Index* (revised in 1986), prepared by the International Education Research Foundation.

Other organizations and individuals publish on educational systems. When their works are available, every attempt is made to bring them to the attention of the admissions community throughout the United States.

This article has outlined the ways in which U.S. admissions professionals obtain information on international study and credentials. The process is continuous, all persons in the field participate on a volunteer basis. In the United States, specialists on the subject consider that there are no absolutes in the interpretation of the comparability of educational credentials. The shared goal is to assist in academic mobility making the experience as valuable as possible. The shared conviction is that if a student is to enroll in an institution in the United States, an appropriate academic background is necessary in order to give the educational experience maximum value. In addition, every effort is made to provide equitable treatment to all applicants and to see that they embark on the new training with roughly comparable preparation.

As is outlined in this article, the sharing of up-to-date information on educational systems is crucial for institutions in the United States to keep abreast of developments. Participants in all the programmes described welcome any new information and regularly assist colleagues in other institutions when new issues arise. Further, the extension of this network to Europe and to other regions is highly desired.

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American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO)
One Dupont Circle, N.W., No. 330
Washington, DC 20036

American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers/Agency for International Development Project (AACRAO/AID)
Academic Advisory Service

Office of International Training, AID
Washington, DC 20523

National Council on the Evaluation of Foreign Educational Credentials (The Council)
c/o AACRAO
One Dupont Circle, N.W., No. 330
Washington, DC 20036

National Association of Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA)
1860 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20009

Projects in International Education Research (PIER)
c/o NAFSA
1860 19th Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20009

National Liaison Committee on Foreign Student Admissions (NLC)
c/o Richard Dye
Institute of International Education
809 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017

National Association Credential Evaluation Services (NACES)
c/o World Education Services, Inc.
PO Box 745
Old Chelsea Station
New York NY 10011

International Education Research Foundation, Inc. (IERF)
PO Box 66940
Los Angeles, CA 90066

TRACE: TRANS REGIONAL ACADEMIC MOBILITY AND CREDENTIAL EVALUATION

Claudine LANGLOIS

International academic mobility, sanctioned by an increasing number of international, regional, and bilateral agreements, has been gaining in importance over the last thirty years. This increase in mobility has accentuated the need for more and better information about institutions, systems, and diplomas of higher education; however, the mass of information required has, at the same time, become increasingly difficult to handle. With this problem in mind, a group of international higher education experts came together in June 1987 to investigate the possibilities of cooperating and of sharing information through the establishment of compatible regional data banks to be linked together in a network. Thus TRACE — Trans Regional Academic Mobility and Credit Evaluation — was born. So far, the experts have held four meetings aimed at shaping and at giving substance to their project. Even though the initiative was taken by experts from Europe and North America, the intention is to create a truly interregional system of co-operation in the sharing of data. To stress this interregional aspect, the suggestion was made that the International Association of Universities (IAU) in Paris should act as a clearing house for the network. The experience of IAU in the collection and the dissemination of information on higher education throughout the world goes back to 1950. Its International Universities Bureau (IUB), which is currently undergoing computerization, is planning to create three databases: an institutional database, a bibliographical database, and a database devoted to research on higher education.

INTRODUCTION

An increasingly important feature in higher education today is that of academic mobility and exchanges: governments and institutions have come to realize that one of the primary means with which to develop mobility and the free flow of academic staff, researchers, and students is through the *mutual recognition of studies, degrees, and diplomas.*

The last 30 years have witnessed a growing interest on the part of international and regional governmental organizations in the promotion of qualification recognition among countries. In Europe, the movement started with the pioneer work of the Council of Europe, leading to its 1953 Convention on the Equivalence of Diplomas Leading to Admission to Universities. This action was followed, in 1956, by the European Convention on Equivalence of Periods of University Study intended primarily for modern language students spending part of their courses abroad and, in 1959, by the European Convention on the Academic Recognition of University Qualifications.

In addition, the European Economic Community has, for a long time, felt the need for the free establishment of professionals within its member states, thus requiring the recognition of their qualifications. Agreements were reached and directives adopted for the mutual recognition of qualifications in medicine, dentistry, law, and engineering. With the recent launching of the ERASMUS project, academic mobility and the recognition of degrees and study periods have become priorities of European policy.

Other smaller intergovernmental organizations in Europe have also signed conventions on the recognition of qualifications, including the Nordic Council, with its Treaty of Cultural Co-operation in 1971, and the socialist countries — together with Cuba — with their Convention on the Mutual Recognition of Qualifications, signed in Prague in 1972.

So far as Unesco is concerned, conventions on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees in Higher Education have been signed for each of its main regions, starting with Latin America and the Caribbean in 1974; followed by the Arab States in 1978; Europe in 1979; Africa in 1981; and Asia and the Pacific in 1983. A convention was also signed between Arab and European States bordering on the Mediterranean (1976). The Unesco European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES) in Bucharest acts as the Secretariat of the European Convention.

As a follow-up to their conventions, most of these intergovernmental organizations have asked their member states to set up information centres on academic mobility: the National Equivalence Information Centres (NEIC) by the Council of Europe; the National Academic Recognition Information Centres (NARIC) by the European Community; and national bodies dealing with the application of the Unesco conventions. In addition to providing information on their own national systems of higher education and their levels of recognition of foreign degrees, these centres gather documentation related to other systems of higher education to help them make their assessments. Apart from these national centres, international and regional bodies which gather information on education and mobility also exist. Examples within Unesco are CEPES in Bucharest, the Regional Centre for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean (CRESALC) in Caracas, and other Regional Offices for Education. The European Community maintains the ERASMUS Bureau in Brussels. Some of these centres are computerized and have set up detabases. CEPES, for instance, keeps up-to-date data on the recognition of qualifications in Europe, and CRESALC is setting up, in co-operation with the Union of Latin American Universities, a network on higher education in Latin America. The Unesco Regional Office for Education in the Arab States (UNEDBAS) is also planning to create such a network for the Arab States in collaboration with the Association of Arab Universities. The Association partiellement ou entièrement de langue française (AUPELF), Montreal, has a computerized database on French-speaking universities and institutions in the world.

Information is the solid basis of academic mobility and recognition of foreign qualifications, both at the level of the degree evaluators who advise on the placement of foreign students in national institutions (and on placement in the professions) and at that of the student who, wishing to study abroad, is looking for an appropriate institution and programme. However, reliable information concerning higher education systems, institutions, study programmes, and qualifications in other countries — although indispensable — is lacking in many countries, particularly in developing countries which can seldom afford a comprehensive information service. Moreover, systems and institutions change and develop rapidly, and information has to be continuously updated, making it even more difficult to manage.

However, as mentioned above, information *does* exist in many different places but access to it is difficult, and its exchange is not well organized. In Europe and in North America, several national bodies which gather data on higher education have become increasingly aware of the necessity for co-operating and for sharing available data in order to avoid duplication and to increase their effectiveness. One initiative in this direction is TRACE.

I. TRACE

In June 1987, a group of interested international education experts concerned with questions of student mobility and counselling and involved in the evaluation of foreign credentials met in Bonn to discuss the possibility of setting up an international information network on academic mobility. These experts, coming from academic bodies in eight countries, represented the Association of Registrars of Universities and Colleges of Canada; the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada; the Central Office on Education in Other Countries of the Federal Republic of Germany; the ERASMUS Bureau; the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD); the International Association of Universities (IAU); the National Academic Recognition Information Centre of the British Council; the National Board of Universities and Colleges of Sweden; the Netherlands Universities Foundation for International Co-operation (NUFFIC); the Swiss University Conference; Unesco's CEPES; and the following United States organizations: the National Liaison Committee on International Admissions, the Council of Graduate Schools, the College Board, the Institute of International Education (IIE), the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO), and the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA). As a result of the discussions, TRACE was set up as a means to "improve the quality of and access to information related to the international academic *mobility* of people and the *evaluation* of academic credentials". The following statement of purpose was formulated:

"With the aid of modern technology, TRACE will provide a means of exchanging standardized information on higher education and professional training. It is designed to avoid duplication in the areas of data collection and updating through an international co-operative effort. By linking existing and future educational databases, agreement on data collection elements, and by some modification of current data collection practices, an international data network will be established and made available worldwide. Only hard facts will be gathered; interpretation and evaluation will be left to the specialists in the respective countries. The datalink will have additional benefits for research in comparative higher education and for increasing co-operation among institutions interested in the international exchange process. . . The long-range goal of TRACE is the establishment of an international database which will allow for immediate access to information on educational systems and institutions and enable the regular updating of the database by appropriate educational and professional authorities and institutions around the world".

TRACE held its second meeting in New York in November 1987 at which time the group defined the needs of users and decided that the database should include at least three different profiles describing respectively higher education systems, institutions, and qualifications. Draft questionnaires corresponding to these profiles were subsequently prepared by the IAU in Paris and the College Board in New York. The group is currently working to produce a final form for these questionnaires.

A special meeting on TRACE was held in Paris in March 1988 with the purpose of examining the technical requirements for computer networking between national databases on higher education. The experts present at the meeting saw no major technical difficulties in linking up different databases but, rather than a centralized data bank, clear preference was given to a decentralized structure in which data collection would be effected by national and regional centres, the data then being aggregated at an international level. As to access, several possibilities were examined including online access, electronic mail, exchange of diskettes and tapes, and print-outs. An interesting alternative, with a very reasonable cost-benefit ratio, would be the CD-ROM disk.

The fourth meeting took place in Leiden in June 1988. It was basically devoted to the structure and to the functions of the TRACE network.

The initiative for the first TRACE meeting was taken by experts from Europe and North America. However, the presence of the International Association of Universities (IAU) in the working group opened possibilities for conducting the sharing of data on a truly interregional basis. It was therefore decided that the IAU, with its documentation centre, the International Universities Bureau (IUB), should serve as a clearing-house for TRACE.

II. The International Association of Universities and Academic Mobility

When IAU was founded in 1950, with the constitutionally mandated purpose of providing "a centre of co-operation at the international level among the universities and similar institutions of higher education of all countries as well as among organizations in the field of higher education generally", its main instrument of action became the International Universities Bureau (IUB), which itself had been established in 1949 at Unesco Headquarters following a resolution by the third session of the General Conference. The IUB was given two initial tasks: to set up a documentation centre on higher education and to make preparations for the founding conference of the IAU. The documentation centre now includes some 16,000 volumes and a large collection of unpublished materials. It has about 350 periodicals dealing with higher education from all parts of the world and keeps an up-to-date collection of 4,000 calendars and catalogues on major higher education institutions.

Over the years, the IUB has received increasing numbers of requests from university institutions, academic bodies, and governmental agencies with regard to higher education systems and institutions and academic mobility and recognition of studies, diplomas, and degrees. Many inquiries have come from professional organizations, employers, individual teachers, and students. The Bureau replies daily to numerous requests for information concerning qualifications awarded or programmes offered worldwide. The collection of directories and guides to higher education as well as individual university catalogues and calendars contain information dating back twenty years or more which is invaluable for the evaluation of studies carried out in the past years.

In order to disseminate this large body of information, the Bureau has been publishing a quarterly *Bulletin* containing sections on university affairs, university co-operation, bibliographies, book reviews, and reviews of reviews. The documentation also serves as the principal resource for IAU's two main reference works, the *International Handbook of Universities* and the *World List of Universities.* The large collection of regional and national guides to higher education has also served as the basis for the *World Guide to Higher Education*, a volume prepared by IAU for Unesco.

Computerized Access to Information on Higher Education

In order to facilitate access to this fund of information and to discharge its function as an international referral centre and clearing-house on higher education, IUB is at present being computerized. The Bureau will be linked to Unesco's mainframe computer, an IBM 3083K. As a consequence, UNESCO CDS/ISIS software is undergoing adaptation. Originally developed by Unesco for bibliographical purposes, CDS/ISIS, which offers highly developed output capacity, can be used for other types of databases. A further asset is that a microversion has been devised for use on personal computers, one which is available free of charge to non-profit organizations and educational institutions. Unesco conducts short training courses for its use.

IUB plans to create three databases on higher education: an *institutional* and a *bibliographical* database, and eventually, a database on *research on higher education.*

The *Institutional Database* will contain detailed information on the systems of higher education and individual institutions in each country. It will be updated on a regular basis and will thus provide several varieties of current information: lists of institutions and their addresses by country or by subject speciality; detailed information on specific institutions and higher education systems; information on admissions criteria, programmes of study, degrees and diplomas awarded by institutions of higher education, level of recognition of foreign degrees and diplomas within each country; and existing exchange agreements with other universities. In this context, the TRACE project foresees, as outlined above, close collaboration with regional and national bodies to set up a network of computerized data.

In order to provide organized access to the heterogeneous and dispersed bulk of information available, three profiles have been designed for data collection and processing purposes following a definition of users' needs by the TRACE group. The first profile, one which concerns *higher education sys-*

tems, is addressed to national academic bodies and education authorities. It aims at providing basic information on the structure and organization of higher education in each country. The second profile, one on *higher education institutions*, is addressed to individual establishments and includes detailed data, such as admissions criteria, programmes of study, qualifications awarded, and statistics. The third profile, one on *qualifications*, is intended to give, as far as is feasible, an overview, at the national level, of each type of higher education degree and diploma awarded in a particular country.

For IAU, the TRACE project is an exciting venture whereby the international collection and processing of and access to data on higher education, may be achieved through the co-operation and the pooling of the activities and resources of the different partners. With its worldwide membership and its new technical infrastructure, IAU, in collaboration with Unesco and its specialized centres and units, has a unique potential to share in this joint effort: to better serve all those involved in various forms of international co-operation in higher education and, more particularly, those responsible for the promotion and the administration of international academic mobility.

ERASMUS: THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITY'S HIGHER EDUCATION ACTION PROGRAMME IN ITS FIRST YEAR*

Alan SMITH and *Fritz DALICHOW*

On 14 May 1987, the Education Ministers of the Twelve reached agreement on the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students (ERASMUS). With a total of 85 million ECU ** earmarked for its initial phase (1 July 1987 to 30 June 1990), the programme will aim at encouraging increased student and staff mobility throughout the European Community by means of the creation of a European University Network, the award of grants to individual students, arrangements for the mutual recognition of qualifications and courses or parts of courses, and a range of additional supporting measures. In the following article, the authors will examine, in some detail, the Actions provided for in the Programme, which was formally adopted by the Council on 15 June 1987.

May 14th will go down as an important date in the development of the European Community. When the Education Ministers of the 12 Member States reached agreement on the ERASMUS Programme (the European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students), they not only created the basis for giving a significant boost to the level of student mobility within the Community, but also laid one of the main foundation blocks in the edifice which has come to be known as the People's Europe. As stated by Commission Vice-President, Manuel Marin at the press conference which followed the meeting of Ministers, "ERASMUS is a programme of hope for the young people of Europe".

History of the ERASMUS Decision

Agreement on the Programme had not been easy to reach: the Commission's proposals for ERASMUS (cf. Doc. COM(85)756 final/2) were submitted to the Council early in 1986, but while all Member States had welcomed the objectives of the Programme, a number of them (notably France, the Federal Republic of Germany, and the United Kingdom) had raised serious objections to the overall budget envisaged and the legal base upon which the Commission's proposals rested. In November 1986, when the Council of Education Ministers failed for the second time to reach a satisfactory agreement on the Programme, the Commission even withdrew the proposal altogether, fearing that it might be adopted with such a small-scale budget that the objectives of the Programme would be seriously jeopardized. However, after the heads of State and Government, meeting within the European Council in December 1986, had reiterated the importance which they attached to ERASMUS, the Commission's proposals were retabled in an unamended form, and top-level pronouncements in favour of the Programme which then followed, such as President Mitterrand's broadcast on French television in March 1987, suggested that the chances of a successful outcome were more favourable this time.

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* The present article draws heavily, with the permission of the Editor and authors, on an article which appeared in the *ERASMUS Newsletter*, No. 2, 1987, pp. 1-3. Portions of it indeed were first published in an earlier issue of this review, Vol. XII, No. 3, 1987, pp. 69-71.

** One ECU is worth approximately $ 0.8131 United States dollars.

The ERASMUS Programme as finally agreed upon does great justice to its objectives — and to the memory of the "mobile" European scholar from whom it derives its name. Far from being an uneasy compromise about which several parties have serious misgivings, the Programme was unanimously approved by the Education Ministers of all the Member States, and with the wholehearted support which the universities of the Community have given the Programme from the very start, there is every reason for confidence in the ability of ERASMUS to make a real impact on inter-university co-operation in the Community. True, the Commission and those Member States (the majority) which had supported the Commission's stance had to make significant concessions on the budget, but the design of the Programme has remained intact and constitutes a comprehensive instrument for developing a wide range of inter-university cooperative activities, on a voluntary basis, between all Community countries.

Objectives

The main objective of the Programme is to help boost student mobility among the twelve Member States well above its present unsatisfactory level, by providing far more students than hitherto with the possibility of spending a recognized period of study in another Community country. The significant increase in the number of graduates with first-hand experience of other Member States, to which this will give rise, will not only be a cornerstone in the construction of the People's Europe, as indicated above. It will also be an essential component in helping to raise awareness of interdependence within the Community, thereby contributing to the completion and consolidation of the internal market which will be the key to ensuring EC competitivity on the world stage in the years ahead. For this reason, one of the main actions envisaged within ERASMUS is the creation of a major scheme of grants to students to enable them to cover the extra "mobility costs" of studying in another Community country.

But in addition to the support to be given to students, ERASMUS will also promote — through the progressive creation of the European University Network — a wide range of other academic activities with a European dimension, notably by providing support to facilitate exchanges of teaching staff between higher education institutions throughout the Community. An overview of all the Actions contained in the Programme is provided elsewhere in this present article.

The intensification and the long-term consolidation of higher education co-operation in the Community is not something which can be produced overnight. It will take time to develop and mature. For this reason, it is particularly significant that in approving the ERASMUS Programme the Education

Ministers have not imposed a time-limit on its duration. ERASMUS will therefore be an ongoing programme, albeit naturally with a built-in procedure for regular review. During the initial phase from 1987 to 1990, an interim report will be addressed to the Ministers each year, and a more in-depth evaluation will be conducted after three years on the basis of which certain adaptations to the Programme will be possible.

Preceding pilot programme

In fact, ERASMUS is not starting from scratch. The Programme will be able to build upon the results of a full decade of experience with the Community's pilot programme for inter-university cooperation — the Joint Study Programme (JSP) grants scheme, introduced in the framework of the Community's Education Action Programme of February 1976. In all, some 586 joint ventures for student and staff exchange and the development of common curricula were supported during the course of the JSP scheme, which was characterized by an ever-increasing demand on the part of the universities. In 1987, over 600 requests were received — 25% more than in 1986 and ten times the number of applicants who came forward when the scheme first began.

The first foundations of the European University Network had therefore already been laid prior to the adoption of ERASMUS, and the Council decision on ERASMUS opted for further development of this Network before embarking on the award of grants to students on a really large scale.

Financial Scope

Priority was therefore given to the European University Network in the first year of ERASMUS, and a large proportion of the over 11.2 million ECU earmarked for the 1978—1988 academic year was spent in the form of grants to higher education institutions to enable them to develop the necessary infrastructure for the management of substantial and ongoing programmes for student and staff exchange.

Already as of the 1988—1989 academic year, the ERASMUS budget will increase sharply to some 30 million ECU, and at this point the number of students receiving ERASMUS grants will grow correspondingly. A further 45 million ECU are earmarked for the 1989—1990 operation (almost two-thirds of which will be spent on student grants), bringing the total budget for the initial 3-year phase of ERASMUS (1 July 1987 — 30 June 1990) to 85 million ECU. With this budget, it is provisionally estimated that it will be possible to award some 2,000 grants to universities, 4,000 grants to teaching staff and administrators, and over 20,000 mobility grants to students in this initial phase of the Programme.

Administration

In order to implement a programme of this magnitude, full commitment from those involved in the central coordination of the Programme in Brussels will not be enough. For the Programme to realize its full potential, it must be carefully attuned to the situation, systems, and needs of each Member State, and this is reflected in the management structure envisaged. To assist the Commission in the implementation of the Programme, an ERASMUS Advisory Committee has been established consisting of two members per Member

State, at least one of whom is drawn from the academic community. The Committee is a purely consultative body, but its role is crucial for achieving the best possible interface with Member State policies and programmes and for ensuring the full involvement of the higher education community in the implementation of the Programme.

Furthermore, so far as the student grants are concerned, the Programme approved by the Ministers provides for a decentralized administrative structure: students will not apply for financial support directly to Brussels, but rather the responsibility for administering the grants will lie with appropriate authorities in each of the Member States. Eleven of the 12 Member States have now designated a central organization for this purpose. This structure, which was adopted at the Commission's proposal, reflects Commissioner Marin's commitment to ensuring a transparent and flexible administration of the Programme.

The First ERASMUS Year 1987—1988

Due to the fact that the ERASMUS Programme, although only adopted in mid-June, was already to be implemented with effect from 1 July 1987, special transitional measures had to be taken to ensure an adequate participation of universities and students during the 1987—1988 academic year. For this purpose, two selection rounds were organized, one in summer and one in autumn 1987. In the first selection round, the applications for the pilot programmes "Joint Study Programmes" and "Short Study Visits", which had already reached the Office for Cooperation in Education (the predecessor of the ERASMUS Bureau), were transformed into ERASMUS applications (with appropriate opportunity for amendment by applicants), processed, and selected. Exceptionally, a complementary selection round was organized to enable consideration of new applications corresponding to projects which had become feasible as a result of the adoption of the ERASMUS Programme. The period for the submission of applications had to be very short (deadline was 30 September 1987); processing, selection, and notification of grantholders were carried out late in 1987.

During the Programme's first year of operation, 398 *Inter-University Cooperation Programmes* (ICP) received community support covering all the Community countries and involving altogether about 850 higher education institutions in a broad range of academic disciplines. These 398 programmes, which are sharing a budget of 3.84 million ECU, are the starting point for the construction of the European University Network (Action 1 of ERASMUS). Furthermore, 357 of these programmes are receiving further funds totalling 3.1 million ECU for the purpose of awarding some 3,000 *student* grants enabling awardees to spend a period of study in another Member State (Action 2). A total of 1,138 *study visit* agreements are affording some 3,000 university teachers and administrators the opportunity of travelling to other Member States to lay the foundations of new cooperation programmes and to become acquainted with the higher education systems of the countries visited. Twelve university associations are currently implementing European projects with the financial support of ERASMUS. The components of the Programme which relate to academic recognition are well in hand, and a large-scale and intensive information campaign has been launched in Member States the universities of which have been found, so far, to be participating least actively in the ERASMUS Programme.

Outlook

During the 1988–1989 and 1989–1990 academic years, the ERASMUS budget will be multiplied by a factor of 3 and 4.5 respectively compared with the first year of operation (1987–1988). The perspectives for inter-university cooperation within the Community will accordingly become brighter still. Coming just one year after the adoption of the COMETT Programme for the promotion of links between higher education institutions and industry, ERASMUS takes its place in a more comprehensive Community policy designed to achieve the maximum possible Community-wide exploitation of the intellectual resources available in the twelve EC Member States. As a long-term investment in the development of the Community's future human resources, it is predicted that ERASMUS will have an impact on Community development which is out of all proportion to the meagre percentage of the Community budget which it represents. The policy-makers have responded to the universities' call for a major EC initiative in this field. It is now up to the universities themselves to take up the challenge which ERASMUS presents.

The ERASMUS Programme at a Glance

Action 1: European University Network

- Grants to higher education institutions to facilitate the planning, development, operation, maintenance, monitoring, and evaluation of inter-university programmes for the exchange of students and teaching staff. Each institution participating in a joint programme may receive a grant of up to ECU 25,000 per programme per academic year. It is envisaged that the average grant per institution is generally in the order of ECU 10,000 per programme per year.
- Grants to help cover the travel and subsistence expenses of staff members carrying out teaching assignments in other Member States. The grants vary according to the duration of the periods to be spent abroad and the travel costs involved. For example, a teaching assignment lasting 3 months carries an average grant of around ECU 3,500. In addition, the home institutions of staff members going abroad on ERASMUS teaching assignments may receive financial support to facilitate the temporary replacement of the staff members concerned. The average grant awarded for this purpose will be ECU 2,500 per month for each staff member to be replaced.
- Grants of up to ECU 1,500 to facilitate visits to other Member States by members of the teaching and administrative staffs of higher educa-

tion institutions with a view to establishing contacts for future cooperative programmes and/or for the purpose of acquainting themselves more thoroughly with aspects of the higher education systems in the countries visited.

Action 2: Student Grants

- ERASMUS provides grants of up to ECU 5,000 per year (average: 2,000) to help cover the "mobility costs" (travel, language preparation, cost-of-living differential, etc.) of students spending a fully recognized period of study (normally between 3 and 12 months) in another Community country. First priority is given to students participating in programmes funded under the European University Network.
- During their periods of study in other Member States of the Community, students receiving ERASMUS grants continue to be able to utilize any home country grants or loans from government or government-funded sources for the purpose of study in their own countries.
- ERASMUS grantholders do not pay any tuition fees at their host universities. However, any fees normally payable to their home universities may continue to be levied during their ERASMUS-supported study periods abroad.

Action 3: Academic Recognition

- Establishment of a pilot scheme for the academic recognition of degrees and course units, known as the European Community Course Credit Transfer System (ECTS). The system will be worked out in collaboration with a limited number of higher education institutions selected for participation on the basis of voluntary expressions of interest.
- Consolidation of the EC Network of National Academic Recognition Information Centres (NARIC), each national centre concerned to receive Community support of around ECU 20,000 per year.
- Grants of up to ECU 20,000 per year for the development of common curricula to link higher education institutions in different Member States.

Action 4: Additional Measures

- Grants of up to ECU 20,000 to facilitate the organization of "Intensive Teaching Programmes" of short duration involving students from several Member States.
- Grants to university associations and consortia operating on a European basis, notably with a view to making innovations in particular areas more widely known throughout the Community.
- Support to enable top-level experts to give series of lectures in other Member States.
- Publications and other information measures designed to raise awareness of opportunities for study and teaching in other Community countries and to disseminate information on innovative models for inter-university cooperation.
- Prizes for students and higher education staff members who make particularly outstanding contributions to furthering inter-university cooperation in the Community.

Table 1

Grants for study visits awarded in 1987—88

	B	D	DK	E	F	G	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	TOTAL
Agricultural Sciences	7	4	4	5	8	7	5	7	0	3	2	3	55
Architecture	3	2	0	5	4	2	0	15	0	0	0	9	40
Fine Arts	2	2	1	3	1	2	3	2	0	10	1	8	35
Business studies	3	20	8	11	20	6	4	1	1	7	4	24	109
Education	6	12	5	22	1	5	2	4	0	9	7	10	83
Engineering	11	12	7	13	19	19	10	8	0	2	28	17	146
Geography	5	1	0	4	5	2	2	5	0	2	0	12	38
Humanities	1	2	7	6	1	0	1	14	0	3	0	6	41
Languages	13	18	16	25	24	3	5	19	0	5	1	19	148
Law	1	7	0	3	5	4	0	6	0	2	1	4	33
Mathematics	3	1	0	12	4	5	4	6	0	1	3	14	53
Medical Sciences	10	5	2	14	5	6	1	24	0	9	7	6	89
Natural Sciences	6	1	1	15	8	6	6	6	0	2	4	15	70
Social Sciences	12	17	3	6	12	5	2	16	0	8	5	17	103
Higher Education Adm.	0	5	0	4	4	3	2	9	0	1	3	3	34
Others	2	6	4	7	3	4	1	4	0	10	7	13	61
TOTAL	85	115	58	155	124	79	48	146	1	74	73	180	1138

Table 2

ICP's supported by area of study

	Number	Percentage
Agriculture	9	2.3%
Architecture, Urban Planning	16	4.0%
Fine Arts	12	3.0%
Business, Management	67	16.8%
Education, Teacher Training	11	2.8%
Engineering, Technology	51	12.8%
Geography, Geology	9	2.3%
Humanities	20	5.0%
Language, Literature, Linguistics	79	19.8%
Law	29	7.3%
Mathematics, Informatics	12	3.0%
Medical Sciences	14	3.5%
Natural Sciences	34	8.5%
Social Sciences	30	7.5%
Others	5	1.3%
TOTAL	398	99.9%

Table 3

ICP's supported by Member State participation

	Number	Percentage
Belgium	43	10.8% •
F. R. of Germany	172	43.2%
Denmark	26	6.5%
Spain	93	23.4%
France	218	54.8%
Greece	31	7.8%
Italy	83	20.9%
Ireland	29	7.3%
Luxembourg	1	0.3%
Netherlands	67	16.8%
Portugal	21	5.3%
United Kingdom	239	60.1%

• i.e. "Belgian universities are *involved in* 10.8% of the ICP's supported".

Table 4

ICP's in terms of Member State participation and area of study

	B•	D	DK	E	F	G	IRL	I	L	NL	P	UK	TOTAL
Agriculture	2	2	2	2	5	0	0	1	2	0	3	3	19
Architecture, Urban Planning	0	3	2	3	5	1	9	2	0	2	4	5	36
Fine Arts	3	5	0	3	4	0	3	2	0	5	0	7	32
Business, Management	5	36	3	21	50	4	11	6	0	10	1	48	195
Education, Teacher Training	3	7	3	1	4	3	2	0	0	4	0	7	34
Engineering, Technology	4	22	1	10	30	7	4	2	0	4	2	37	123
Geography, Geology	1	3	2	3	6	2	6	0	0	2	3	3	31
Humanities	3	6	1	2	7	3	9	1	0	10	2	15	59
Languages, Literature	9	27	5	27	40	1	15	7	0	9	3	37	180
Law	1	17	1	5	16	2	3	0	0	4	0	18	67
Mathematics, Informatics	2	4	2	1	7	2	2	0	0	2	0	6	28
Medical Sciences	1	6	0	2	4	2	3	1	0	2	1	6	28
Natural Sciences	3	16	2	6	23	3	8	4	0	8	3	23	99
Social Sciences	3	15	2	5	15	0	7	3	0	1	1	20	72
Others	3	3	0	2	2	1	1	0	1	2	1	4	20
TOTAL	43	172	26	93	218	31	83	29	1	67	21	239	1023

• i.e. "Belgian universities are involved in 2 ICP's in the area of Agriculture".

Table 5

Student mobility grants, the 1987—1988 academic year

Money earmarked for students in the different Member States for the purpose of carrying out a recognized part of their studies in a university of another Member State (ECU)

	1st Round	2nd Round	Total
Belgium	63 920	21 920	85 840
Denmark	18 640	10 560	29 200
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	460 100	140 480	600 580
Greece	58 600	30 800	89 400
Spain *	354 770	135 520	490 290
France	426 600	123 700	550 300
Ireland	32 000	7 940	39 940
Italy	286 800	148 080	434 880
Luxembourg [1]	P.M.	P.M.	P.M.
Netherlands *	102 000	35 000	137 000
Portugal	34 890	34 000	68 890
United Kingdom	415 700	112 000	527 700
(student mobility programme for which the geographical movements are not predetermined)	42 300	—	42 300
TOTAL	2 296 320	800 000	3 096 320

[1] Lacking a complete university infrastructure in their own country, Luxembourg students will be eligible for ERASMUS grants within the framework of the ICP's established between the universities of the other Member States, in which they carry out their studies.

* Countries which have designated a national agency to administer ERASMUS grants in 1987—1988.

STUDENT MOBILITY IN THE EUROPE REGION: A STATISTICAL EVALUATION

Dumitru CHIŢORAN and *Valentin NICOLAE*

Based on data taken from the Unesco Statistical Yearbook (1987), supplemented, for several countries, with data obtained from the Liaison Officers of CEPES or from other available sources, the article examines the statistics of student mobility in the Europe Region over the 1980—1985 period. Special attention is given to the intra-European flows of foreign students, and several trends in European student mobility are thus identified.

Introductory Remarks

In preparation for the third session of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas, and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region (May, 1986), CEPES published an article on "Foreign Students in the Countries of the Europe Region: Basic Statistical Data" in *Higher Education in Europe* (Vol. XI, No. 1, 1986, pp. 68—79).

Based on available figures up to 1983, drawn mainly from the Unesco Statistical Yearbook, the following general trends were identified with regard to the international mobility of students in the Europe Region:

- In terms of total *student enrollments* (both indigenous and foreign), the negative demographic trends recorded in several countries of the Region were *not* accompanied, as had been predicted throughout the previous decade, by considerable decreases in student numbers (in fact, the figures indicated increases in no less than 25 countries of the Region). This evolution can be regarded, primarily, as the result of the combined effects of the diversification of higher education institutions which have been enrolling a larger percentage of young of the 18—24 age bracket than in the past, and the increased admission of older people to various programmes.
- With regard to the *number of foreign students* in Europe, spectacular increases throughout previous decades up to the 1980's gave way to a certain levelling off in the case of most countries. Several countries indeed experienced slight decreases.
- Student mobility *by country* has become increasingly *diversified* — in the sense that even though several countries (the USA, France, the USSR, the FRG) still collectively receive the largest proportion of foreign students, almost all the other countries of the Region have become increasingly involved in the student exchange process; moreover, percentages have expanded, particularly in those countries which had fewer foreign students in the past.
- Europe and North America have received a very large proportion of students from Third World countries.

- Although *student mobility among countries of the Europe Region* represents a relatively small part of the total in comparison with flows from other regions, it is nevertheless considerable. Indeed, it is expected to expand significantly as a result of the adoption of the large-scale programmes which have been launched by the EEC, the socialist countries of Europe, and the Council of Europe and as a result of bi- and multilateral agreements between countries of the Region as well as among the institutions of higher education themselves.
- More significantly, the statistical evaluation was indicative of the measures taken by most European countries to take advantage of the benefits of international student exchanges, by acting both as *senders* and as *receivers* of foreign students, a situation which is regarded as the ultimate goal of co-operation in higher education.

In an attempt to follow up the extent to which the conclusions of the 1986 article still hold true, we are presenting below a statistical evaluation of foreign student flows in the Europe Region at the level of 1985, the last year for which data are available for the majority of the countries of the Region. A more detailed analysis of these data will be presented in the statistical study on "Higher Education and Research in Europe — 1980–1985", which is currently being elaborated by CEPES.

Limitations of the Analysis

The transnational comparison of statistical data with regard to *any* aspect of higher education, international student mobility included, is very difficult. Despite efforts to overcome such difficulties, it is necessary to point out the following limitations of this article:

— lack of data (or of recent data) on foreign students for a number of countries ;

— perceptible differences in the manner of collecting data from one country to another, a fact which renders their comparison very difficult.

In the latter category, mention should be made first of all of the differences that can be observed with regard to how a 'foreign student' is defined in various countries of the Region. The chief criterion remains, of course, the citizenship of the student in question: any person who holds a passport other than that of the country in which he is pursuing his studies is considered to be a foreign student. But in some countries, the foreign student category also includes students with refugee or with permanent resident status. The differences in categorization may lead to significant differences in total figures.

Furthermore, as the notes to Table 1 indicate, figures for certain countries refer to foreign students in all the higher education institutions of a given country, while in other countries they are limited to university students only. Hence discrepancies occur not only with regard to the absolute figures of foreign students from one country to another, but more importantly, with regard to the share held by foreign students in the total number of students in various countries.

Foreign Students in Europe: Absolute Figures

According to the Unesco Statistical Yearbook, the number of foreign students in the world amounted to approximately 977,000 in 1980 and to

1,047,606 in 1983. Of the total for 1983, around 78% (approximatively 817,000) were pursuing their studies in countries of the Europe Region (i.e. all the countries of continental Europe, plus North America, Turkey, and Israel).

Table 1 presents the figures for foreign students in the Europe Region, as updated by CEPES for the year 1985. Most of the data are taken from the Unesco Statistical Yearbook (the 1987 edition). They were supplemented, for several countries, with data which were obtained from the Liaison Offi-

Table 1

Total student enrollment and number of foreign students in the countries of the Europe Region

Country	Year	Total enrollment	Foreign enrollment	% of total enrollment
Albania	1965	12,761	93	0.73
Austria [1]	1985	160,904	15,388	9.56
Belgium	1985	247,499	24,761	10.00
Bulgaria	1985	113,795	7,254	6.37
Canada [1]	1985	752,276	29,496	3.92
Cyprus	1985	3,134	544	17.36
Czechoslovakia	1985	169,344	4,175	2.47
Denmark	1984	114,559	3,101	2.71
Finland [1]	1985	92,230	979	1.06
France [1]	1985	983,483	131,979	13.41
GDR	1985	432,672	9,231	2.13
FRG	1985	1,550,211	79,354	5.12
Greece	1982	137,453	6,683	4.86
Hungary	1985	99,344	2,485	2.50
Iceland	1976	4,035	120	2.97
Ireland	1985	55,087	1,774	3.22
Israel	1985	66,160	1,369	2.07
Italy	1984	1,181,953	27,548	2.33
Luxembourg	1983	982	83	8.45
Malta	1985	1,474	25	1.70
Netherlands [2]	1985	317,721	5,705	1.80
Norway	1980	79,117	1,140	1.44
Poland	1985	454,190	2,986	0.66
Portugal	1984	112,851	2,401	2.13
Romania	1985	159,798	10,774	6.74
Spain	1980	681,022	10,997	1.61
Sweden	1980	203,699	13,182	6.47
Switzerland	1985	110,111	17,396	15.80
Turkey	1985	449,414	7,021	1.56
USSR	1985	5,147,200	66,700	1.30
U.K. [2]	1985	937,000	63,522	6.78
USA	1985	12,247,055	343,780	2.81
Yugoslavia	1985	349,013	7,384	2.12

[1] Data refer to universities and equivalent institutions

[2] Data refer to full-time students only

(Sources: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook* 1975, 1978 — 1979, 1983, 1986, 1987; *Higher Education and Economic Development in Europe 1975 — 1980*, Unesco-CEPES, Bucharest, 1983; *Higher Education in Europe*, Vol. XI, No. 1, Unesco-CEPES, 1986; Data supplied by the Statistical Office of Unesco (December 16, 1987); *Yearbook*, Novosti Press Agency, Moscow, 1988; *Statistics of Students from Abroad in the United Kingdom 1985/1986*) cers of CEPES or were drawn from other available sources. On that basis, the number of foreign students in the Europe Region for 1985 is estimated to amount to a total of 896,000, an increase of approximatively 79,000 by comparison to 1983.

The conclusion drawn two years ago, that international mobility had already reached its peak by the early 1980's and was levelling off to a certain extent, was confirmed. Although the number of foreign students — world-wide — doubled each decade after World War II (245,000 in 1960; 502,000 in 1970; 977,000 in 1980), it increased by only 71,000 between 1980 and 1983. There will certainly be no doubling of the number of foreign students in 1990 by comparison with 1980.

There are several reasons for this slow-down. With the development of national systems of higher education, the pressure to send large numbers of students abroad for the whole period of their studies has somewhat lessened in the case of most developing countries. One other reason seems to be that international mobility has tended to shift towards postgraduate and doctoral studies, and to research. In these cases, periods spent abroad are relatively short (by comparison to the traditional periods of "full" studies abroad), and less systematic record is kept of them at the international level so as to permit valid comparative analyses. Important numbers of foreign students and foreign researchers are probably excluded from the official statistics.

A country by country analysis of the absolute figures for foreign students still indicates that international mobility is concentrated in favour of a small number of major "receivers", namely: the USA, France, the USSR, the Federal Republic of Germany, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Italy. These seven countries combined receive no less than 83% of the total number of foreign students in Europe. By comparison with the situation recorded in 1983, the number of countries receiving between 10,000 and 20,000 foreign students has remained stable and includes the following 6 countries: Switzerland, Austria, Sweden, Belgium, Spain, and Romania. The number of countries receiving from 5,000 to 10,000 foreign students has increased by 1 and now includes the Netherlands, in addition to the German Democratic Republic, Yugoslavia, Turkey, and Greece. Absolute figures still indicate eight countries (Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Poland, Ireland, Hungary, Portugal, Israel, and Norway — the same as in 1983 —) with foreign student numbers ranging from 1,000 to 5,000 but, with 979 foreign students recorded in 1985, Finland can most certainly be considered as belonging to the countries of this group. There are now only five countries in the Europe Region with less than 1,000 foreign students (Cyprus, Iceland, Albania, Luxembourg, and Malta).

Table 2 (p. 52) justifies the following grouping of the countries of the Region with regard to the evolution of foreign student numbers:

— a *steady rise* in numbers in Austria, Denmark, Finland, the German Democratic Republic, the Federal Republic of Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Switzerland, and the United States;

— a perceptible general *trend of increase* punctuated, however, by slight decreases from one year to another within the period in Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, the United Kingdom, and Yugoslavia;

— *a meandering evolution*, with significant rises and drops from year to year, as in the case of Canada, Cyprus, Malta, Poland, and Turkey;

— a *general trend of decrease*, which is continual in the cases of Greece, Romania, and Malta or presents some vacillations as in the cases of Hungary, Ireland, and Italy. Special mention should be made of the dramatic reduction recorded in Greece, from 6,683 foreign students in 1982 to 1,859 in 1984.

Table 2

The relative evolution of the numbers of foreign students trained in the countries of the Europe Region

Country	Number in the base year		Number in the end year		Relative evolution (%)	Average annual rate (%)
	Year	Number	Year	Number		
Austria	1980	11 848	1985	15 388	130	5,4
Belgium	1980	12 875	1985	24 761	192	13,9
Bulgaria	1980	3 988	1985	7 254	182	12,7
Canada	1980	28 443	1985	29 496	104	0,8
Cyprus	1980	331	1985	544	164	10,4
Czechoslovakia	1980	3 642	1985	4 175	115	2,9
Denmark	1980	3 035	1984	3 101	102	0,5
Finland	1980	610	1985	979	160	9,9
France	1980	110 763	1985	131 979	119	3,5
German Dem. Rep.	1980	7 106	1985	9 231	130	5,4
Germany, Fed. Rep.	1980	61 841	1985	79 354	128	5,1
Greece	1980	7 673	1984	1 859	24	—30,0
Hungary	1980	2 742	1985	2 485	91	— 2,0
Ireland	1980	2 845	1985	1 774	61	— 8,0
Italy	1980	29 447	1984	27 548	94	— 1,5
Luxembourg	1980	49	1983	83	169	19,1
Malta	1980	36	1985	25	69	— 7,6
Netherlands	1980	4 128	1985	5 705	138	6,7
Poland	1980	2 912	1985	2 986	103	0,6
Portugal	1980	1 318	1984	2 401	182	16,1
Romania	1980	15 888	1985	10 774	68	— 7,8
Switzerland	1980	14 716	1985	17 396	118	3,4
Turkey	1980	6 655	1985	7 021	105	0,8
United Kingdom	1980	56 003	1985	63 522	113	3,0
United States	1980	311 882	1985	343 780	110	2,0
USSR	1980	55 300	1985	66 700	121	3,6
Yugoslavia	1980	4 426	1985	7 386	167	10,5

(Sources: Same as for Table 1)

Unfortunately, the lack of necessary data for recent years for such countries as Iceland, Norway, Spain, Sweden, etc. prevent a more complete analysis of evolutionary trends with regard to foreign students throughout the Europe Region. However, it is encouraging to notice, that after successive decreases in foreign student numbers during the late 1970's and the early 1980's, several countries, including major receivers such as the United Kingdom, began recording upward trends in 1984 and 1985.

Table 2 also permits some interpretative remarks concerning the *relative evolution of the numbers of foreign students received in the countries of the Europe Region.*

By ranking countries, in decreasing order, in terms of their percent of increase in numbers of foreign students received, the following dynamics can be computed according to average annual rates (here the average annual rate is being considered because the relative dynamics, expressed in percentages throughout the interval cannot be computed for the same number of years for all the countries): Luxembourg 19.1%, Portugal 16.1%, Belgium 13.9%, Bulgaria 12.7%, Yugoslavia 10.5%, Cyprus 10.4%, Finland 9.9%, the Netherlands 6.7%, Austria 5.4%, the German Democratic Republic 5.4%, the Federal Republic of Germany 5.1%, France 3.5%, Switzerland 3.4%, the United Kingdom 3.0%, Czechoslovakia 2.9%, United States 2.0%, Canada 0.8%, Turkey 0.8%, Poland 0.6%, and Denmark 0.5%.

If ranked in the same fashion, the group of countries recording reductions (also presented in accordance with their average annual rates) is listed as follows: Italy with –1.5%, Hungary with –2.0%, Malta with –7.6%, Romania with –7.8%, Ireland with –8.0%, and Greece with –30.0%.

The Share of Foreign Students in the Total Number of Students for Each Country of the Region

Table 1 also indicates the proportion of foreign students in terms of total student enrollments. According to the table, it exceeded 10% in four countries (Cyprus, Switzerland, France, and Belgium); in 7 countries it was between 5 and 10% (Austria, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Romania, Sweden, and the Federal Republic of Germany); in 20 countries it was between 1 and 5% (Greece, Canada, Ireland, Iceland, the USA, Denmark, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Italy, Yugoslavia, the German Democratic Republic, Portugal, the Netherlands, Malta, Spain, Turkey, Norway, Israel, the USSR, Finland); and in the remaining 2, it was less than 1% (Albania and Poland).

The proportion of foreign students in the total number of students is a good indicator of the importance attached to international co-operation in higher education by the authorities and institutions of given countries. Of course, the individual proportions must be correlated with the absolute figures so as to obtain the true image of the actual size of participation in the international flow of foreign students. Thus, one must be aware of the fact that Cyprus ranks first among the countries of the Europe Region in terms of the weight of the foreign student contingent in its total number of students simply because both figures are low: namely 544 foreign students and 3,134 students in general, in 1985. On the other hand, the fact that France ranks third in the same list is of particular significance since the numbers involved are 131,979 foreign students and 978,519 students in general.

Probably the most important development in international co-operation and mobility in higher education in the Europe Region concerns the relatively high percentage of foreign students in those countries in which the total number of students is an average one: Austria, Bulgaria, the Netherlands, Romania, Sweden, Ireland, etc.

A development of equal significance is the fact that of the 19 countries recording proportions of foreign students ranging from 1% to 5%, most have recorded increases in the numbers of students they receive, these numbers certainly being destined to exceed the 5% margin.

The Number of Foreign Students in the Europe Region in Terms of Their Regions of Origin

Within the limits of available data, an analysis will be attempted of the distribution of foreign students in European countries according to their regions of origin. For purposes of this analysis, we have used the *Unesco Statistical Yearbook* for 1987 (Table 3.16, pp. 3—445 to 3—469), which offers the most recent data available on foreign student enrollments by country and region of origin in 50 leading host countries. From this table, we have extracted only the data concerning countries of the Europe Region. Mention must be made of the fact that the *Unesco Statistical Yearbook* includes the USA and Canada under a separate heading of North America; Cyprus, Israel, and Turkey, under that of Asia; and the USSR as a separate world region. Romania and Bulgaria, with 10,774 and 7,259 foreign students respectively in 1985, which should have been included among the 50 leading host countries, are not on this list due to lack of data regarding the distribution of their foreign students by world region of origin. The USSR was not included either because of lack of data concerning the distribution of the foreign students it receives by region of origin, after 1978.

The data provided by the above-mentioned table allow for a closer analysis of the distribution of foreign students coming from various regions of the world to study in the countries of the Europe Region. The preference of foreign students from various continents for a particular country of Europe may be due to a variety of factors: the prestige of a given national system of higher education, particularly of those of its institutions which are internationally recognized as centres of excellence, the traditional links established between various countries over the centuries; the special incentives offered and the facilities created for students from various parts of the world, particularly from the developing countries, as part of the overall measures adopted by various governments to promote international aid and international co-operation for development, etc.

In *Austria*, of the total number of foreign students trained in 1980, 64.3%, came from Europe and 24.4% from Asia, with proportions below 10% for the other zones. In 1985, the situation was very much the same (64.5% and 23.9%, respectively).

In *Belgium*, in 1980, the bulk of foreign students came from Africa (38.2%), Europe (36.2%), and Asia (14.4%), while in 1985, the percentages were (50.0%) Europe, Africa (33.8%), and Asia (10.0%). It should be noted that Belgium experienced a major increase in the total number of foreign students (from 12,875 in 1980 to 24,761 in 1985) including a large increase in the number of students coming from the European continent (from 4,665 in 1980, accounting for 36.2% of the total number of foreign students to 12,377 in 1985, accounting for 50.0% of the total number).

Canada provided the largest number of places for students from Asia (50.4% in 1981 and 52.7% in 1985). Students from North America, Africa, and Europe account respectively for more than 10.0% of the available places. Canada has also been experiencing a notable shift in favour of students from Africa (from 10.7% in 1981 to 15.3% in 1985).

In *Czechoslovakia*, the largest proportion of foreign students was that represented by Asians (45.1% in 1981 and 43.0% in 1985), with a decrease in the proportion of students from Europe (from 30.9% to 23.8%) and an increase in the weight of those coming from Africa (from 13.6% to 21.5%).

In *Denmark*, the absolute majority of students (77.6% in 1980 and 79.3% in 1984) came from Europe, the other zones representing proportions below 10.0%

Finland (for which there are available data only for 1985) is characterized by the high proportion of students from Europe (45.1%), followed by students from Africa (with 18.8%), from Asia (17.7%), and from North America (11.8%).

In *France* (which occupies second place in the world as to the absolute number of foreign students received), the largest proportion (52.8% in 1980 and 57.7% in 1984) was that of students from Africa. The proportion represented by African students is expected to continue increasing. The next place was held by Europe (with 16.8% in 1980 and 16.6% in 1985) and Asia (with 17.7% and 16.2%, respectively), the other zones are represented by proportions of less than 10.0%.

In the *German Democratic Republic*, most foreign students come from Asia (32.1% in 1981 and 39.2% in 1985), from Europe (31.0% and 21.9%), and from Africa (19.5% and 23.1%). In this country, the trend seems to be favouring more Asian and African students.

In the *Federal Republic of Germany*, the proportions represented by students coming from Asia (40.0% in 1980 and 41.7% in 1985) and from Europe (40.2% and 40.8%) are almost equal. The other zones are represented by proportions of under 8.0%.

In the case of *Greece*, the essential characteristic is that the largest proportion of foreign students was made up of students coming from Asia (83.0% in 1979 and 82.8% in 1982), but this is basically the result of the fact that Cyprus, the country accounting for the largest number of students sent to Greece, is grouped among the Asian countries in the Unesco statistics.

In *Hungary*, in 1981, Asia ranked first (with 34.8%), followed by Europe (with 34.2%), and Africa (with 16.9%). In 1985, the first place was held by Europe (with 38.2%), followed by Asia (with 32.6%) and Africa (with 12.4%).

In *Ireland*, the top rank was held by Europe (with 47.1% and 47.8% in 1980 and 1984, respectively), followed by Asia (with 14.0% and 23.8%), North America (with 13.1% and 15.1%), and Africa (with 14.7% and 11.8%). There was a notable increase in the proportion of foreign students coming from Asia and a reduction in that of the students coming from Africa.

In the case of *Italy*, the largest proportion of foreign students came from Europe (56.8% and 57.3% in 1980 and 1983, respectively), with Asia ranking second (26.1% and 28.8%, respectively) and the other zones having proportions below 8.0%. An increase in the relative proportions of the sizes of the two zones of concentration of the largest numbers of foreign students was also registered.

The *Netherlands*, also, gives priority to students coming from Europe (52.5% and 58.5% in 1981 and 1984, respectively) and from Asia (28.0% and 23.8%), with a trend in favour of an increase in size of the European proportion.

In *Poland*, the top position was held by students coming from Asia (36.1% and 51.0% in 1981 and 1985, respectively) and from Africa (22.9% and 24.2%). Students from Europe also represent a sizeable proportion but one which is on the decline (18.7% and 13.5% in 1981 and 1985), as is the case also for North America (14.9% and 6.7%).

In the case of *Portugal*, the leading proportion was composed of students from Africa (46.5% and 60.8% in 1979 and 1984, respectively) andSouth America (36.0% and 30.9%). The numbers of students coming from Africa are increasing, while the proportion of those coming from South America and from Europe is shrinking.

In *Spain*, for which data are available only from 1980 onwards, the largest proportion of foreign students comes from South America (20.6%), a contingent which is followed by that of Asia (13.6%), North America (11.6%), and Europe (11.0%).

Switzerland, with a comparatively large number of foreign students, draws its largest proportion from Europe (69.0% and 71.0% in 1981 and 1985, respectively). The other zones are represented by much smaller proportions: Asia with 8.5% and 7.8% respectively, being the largest of these.

In the case of *Turkey*, the preponderent share is held by students from Asia (84.9% and 87.8% in 1981 and 1984, respectively), whereas the proportions of European students accounts were 7.0% and 6.8%, respectively. The other zones are represented by proportions of less than 4.0%.

Most of the foreign students in the *United Kingdom* came from Asia (47.7% and 48.9% in 1980 and 1983, respectively), followed by Africa (31.0% and 22.3%), and by Europe (11.3% and 16.3%). The proportions of African and European students were increasing with regard to that of Asian students.

In the *United States* the largest proportion was that of Asian students (55.4% and 52.3% in 1981 and 1985, respectively), followed by North American students (12.7% and 10.0%) and African students (12.7% and 8.5%). The students coming from Europe represented only 8.8% of the total in the base year and 8.5% in the end year.

For the *USSR*, as mentioned earlier, the latest available data are for 1978. The top place was held in that year, by students coming from Asia (34.4%), followed by those from Europe (28.4%) and Africa (21.7%).

In *Yugoslavia*, the largest proportion consisted of students coming from Asia (60.6% and 50.2% in 1980 and 1984, respectively), followed by those from Europe (18.1% and 36.1%) and Africa (16.9% and 11.9%). This country, however, is experiencing an important increase in the proportion of foreign students coming from Europe and a diminution in that of students coming from other zones. Some zones, indeed, have experienced very significant declines in the proportions which their students represent.

Foreign Student Flows Among the Countries of the Europe Region

A more detailed analysis will be attempted, in this section of the article, of student flows among the countries of the Europe Region. Unfortunately, the data available do not permit the presentation of a complete picture of European student mobility.

According to *absolute numbers*, the countries of the Europe Region rank as follows according to the number of foreign students from the Region which they receive: 1. the United States, 48,780; 2. the Federal Republic of Germany, 48,044; 3. France, 28,113; 4. Italy, 18,510; 5. the USSR, 17,880; 6. Switzerland, 13,124; 6. Belgium, 13,061; 7. the United Kingdom, 11,698; 8. Austria, 11,344; 9. Canada, 6,426; 10. Greece, 5,289; 11. the Netherlands, 4,007; 12. Yugoslavia, 3,110; 13. Denmark, 2,741; 14. Turkey, 1,723; 15. Spain, 1,717; 15. Ireland, 1,619; 17. Hungary, 1,263; 18. Czechoslovakia, 1,252; 19. Finland, 599; 20. Poland, 567; 21. Portugal, 172.

As determined by the share held by European foreign students in the total number of foreign students received by the countries of the Region, the following rank order results: 1. Denmark (88.4%); 2. Greece (79.1%); 3. Switzerland (75.4%); 4. Austria (73.7%); 5. the Netherlands (72.4%); 6. Italy (65.9%); 7. Finland (61.2%); 8. the Federal Republic of Germany (60.5%); 9. Ireland (60.3%); 10. Belgium (52.7%); 11. Hungary (50.8%); 12. Yugoslavia (39.0%); 13. Czechoslovakia (30.0%); 14. USSR (28.4%); 15. the United Kingdom (25.8%); 16. Turkey (25.6%); 17. Canada (21.8%); 18. France (21.0%); 19. Poland (19.0%); 20. Spain (15.6%); 21. the United States (14.2%); 22. Portugal (7.2%).

A country by country comparison of the percentages of foreign students received from the major European 'senders' in 1980 and in 1985 points to a number of suggestive trends. Thus, of the total number of foreign students from the countries of the Europe Region trained in *Austria*, most came from the Federal Republic of Germany (33.4% in 1980 and 33.4% in 1985, respectively) and from Italy (24.1% and 24.9%). In *Belgium*, most of the places held by European students were taken by students from Italy (13.7% and 24.5%), from the Netherlands (19.7% and 13.3%) and from France (10.2% and 12.0%). In *Canada*, the European contingent was made up of students from the United States (41.1% and 38.3%) and from the United Kingdom (28.5% and 24.0%). The European contingent in *Czechoslovakia* was made up mostly of students from the German Democratic Republic (29.1% and 23.3%), Poland (16.1% and 19.1%), Bulgaria (15.0% and 12.6%) and the USSR (11.3% and 11.2%). In *Denmark*, the contingent consists mainly of students from Norway (25.8% and 34.2%), from Iceland (17.3 and 22.2%), from the Federal Republic of Germany (12.0% and 11.4%), and from Sweden (10.4%). *Finland* (for which there are available data only for 1985) receives most of its European students from Sweden (19.3%), the United States (15.8%), and the Federal Republic of Germany (15.0%). In *France*, the largest proportion of European students is that coming from Greece (16.0 and 13.0%), followed by that of the Federal Republic of Germany (10.3% and 13.0%) and that of the United States (11.6% and 12.6%). Most of the European foreign students received by the *Federal Republic of Germany* come from Turkey (19.2% and 20.9%), from Greece (14.8% and 13.9%), from the United States (9.7% and 8.4%), and from Austria (7.6% and 8.2%). *Greece*, for the most part receives its European students from Cyprus (80.6% and 80.0%), and from Turkey (8.4% and 8.1%). *Hungary* receives its largest contingent of students from the German Democratic Republic (19.2% and 14.2%), from Yugoslavia (14.7% and 14.6%), from Poland (14.3% and 13.8%), from Czechoslovakia (15.6% and 12.4%), and from the USSR (9.9% and 13.4%). *Ireland* is primarily a destination for students coming from the United Kingdom (62.8% and 60.7%), and from the United States (16.7 and 17.7%). In *Italy*, the largest part of the European student contingent is made up of students coming from Greece (64.5% and 66.0%), followed by those from the Federal Republic of Germany (5.6% and 9.4%), Israel (7.6% and 6.3%), and the United States (7.7% and 5.2%). The *Netherlands* is a particular choice of students from the Federal Republic of Germany (29.1% and 29.9%), from Belgium (13.0% and 10.9%), from the United Kingdom (7.9% and 9.1%), and from the United States (7.4% and 7.2%). *Poland* receives students primarily from the United States (28.8% and 18.8%), Greece (11.3% and 15.3%), Czechoslovakia (12.8% and 13.2%), Hungary (10.4% and 7.4%), Bulgaria (11.5% and 5.8%) and from the Federal Republic of Germany (3.2% and 11.6%). In *Portugal*, the largest contingent of European foreign students comes from Spain (48.4% and 26.7%). In *Spain* (for which data is available only from 1980) the largest European contingent is made up of students from the United States (32.3%) followed by those from the Federal Republic of Germany (11.5%) and France (10.8%). *Switzerland* receives its European students primarily from the Federal Republic of Germany (28.7% and 29.0%), Italy (13.4% and 18.4%), and France (18.2% and 16.7%). *Turkey* receives its largest groups of European students from Cyprus (68.8% and 66.9%) and from Greece (24.8% and 21.7%). The largest contingents of European students in the *United Kingdom* come from the United States (19.4% and 23.5%) and Greece (17.9% and 16.7%). The largest contingents of European students in the *United States* come from Canada (29.6% and 27.1%) and from the United Kingdom (11.0% and 10.4%). Computations based on data for the year 1978, the latest year for which such data are available, indicate that the *USSR* receives European students primarily from Bulgaria (25.6%), the German Democratic Republic (25.4%), Poland (18.0%), and Hungary (15.1%). In *Yugoslavia*, most European students come from Greece (52.8% in 1980 and 85.0% in 1985).

The remarks above concerned the European countries in their capacity as "receivers" of foreign students. Equally interesting, if not more important observations can be made with regard to their situation as "senders" of national students to other countries of the Europe Region.

In terms of the number of students they send to other states of the Europe Region, the European countries rank as follows: 1. Greece: 33,993 students; 2. the Federal Republic of Germany: 21,927 students; 3. the United States: 16,983 students; 4. Canada: 15,913; 5. Turkey: 15,786; 6. Italy: 14,697; 7. the United Kingdom: 13,349; 8. France: 11,863; 9. Cyprus: 9,786; 10. Spain: 8,718; 11. Poland: 7,441; 12. the Netherlands: 6,333; 13. Bulgaria: 5,972; 14. Austria: 5,644; 15. the German Democratic Republic: 5,375; 16. Israel: 4,948; 17. Yugoslavia: 4,474; 18. Norway: 4,442; 19. Portugal: 4,063; 20. Switzerland: 4,028; 21. Czechoslovakia: 3,783; 22. Hungary: 3,652; 23. Luxembourg: 3,591; 24. Belgium: 3,254; 25. Sweden: 2,878; 26. Ireland: 2,019; 27. Finland: 1,653; 28. Iceland: 1,505; 29. Denmark: 1,238; 30. USSR: 1,169; 31. Romania: 680; 32. Albania: 179; 33. Malta: 178.

Referring these figures to the total number of students in the respective countries, one notices, as expected, that most of the countries of the Region train their students within the national systems of higher education: for almost 30 states in the Region, the proportion of students sent abroad to other European countries is below 5%. Luxembourg and Cyprus are exceptions, since they send large proportions of their students (roughly 80%) to countries in the Europe Region. They are followed by Greece with over 20%, Malta with over 10%, Israel with almost 9% and Norway, over 5%.

Concluding Remarks

A first pattern emerges according to which student exchanges occur, in the first place, among countries belonging to two groups: among the member states of the European Community on the one hand, and among the European socialist countries which are members of the Council for Mutual Economic

Assistance, on the other hand. A second pattern is provided by the larger number of European students who go to the United States, particularly for postgraduate studies and for research.

Yet another pattern, which has known considerable development during the last two decades, is represented by the South to North direction of student flows, as evidenced by the fairly large numbers of Greek, Cypriot, Turkish, but also Italian and Spanish students pursuing their studies in Northern European countries.

All these patterns fit into an older mould of long-standing exchanges between traditional partners (such as those linking the Nordic countries, Belgium and the Netherlands, Ireland and the United Kingdom, etc).

The general conclusion that can be drawn from the brief statistical evaluation of transnational student flows within the Europe Region is that much remains to be done in order to diversify international mobility in keeping with the possibilities offered and the needs of the national systems of higher education in all the countries of the Region.

The present period is very important with regard to regional and international co-operation in the field of higher education and research. In particular, Europe is experiencing a number of highly interesting developments in this field.

Unesco and other intergovernmental and nongovernmental organizations as well as institutions of higher education themselves are acting as promoters of international exchanges. In their turn, governments and the authorities in charge of higher education systems are becoming increasingly aware not only of the benefits to be derived from regional and international co-operation in higher education, but also of the need to foster the international dimension of higher education and research as a prerequisite for scientific and technological development and for participating in the world effort to achieve scientific progress. Equally important is the recognition of the role played by contacts in higher education and research for international understanding, co-operation and peace. Our hope is that the process of growth which we are bound to witness in the forthcoming period will be characterized by increased numbers of persons involved in mobility programmes but also by the diversification of exchanges over the broadest possible geographical area so as to cover the Europe Region in its entirety.

MOBILITY OR MIGRATION?: THE CASE OF GREEK STUDENTS ABROAD

Marie ELIOU

Both in relative and in absolute terms, Greece has more university level students studying abroad than does any other European country. Although the phenomenon is unplanned, it results from the fact that there is far greater social demand for higher education in Greece than the locally available institutions can provide. Moreover, since Greece has so far not established any third cycle (postgraduate) programmes and institutions, all postgraduate degrees must be earned abroad. Upon their return home, Greek students may have some difficulty in obtaining official recognition of their foreign degrees from the Inter-University Centre for the Recognition of Diplomas Obtained Abroad, which has been functioning since 1979. The Certificate of Recognition issued by this Centre is as important for obtaining employment or for qualifying to exercise certain professions as the diploma itself. The problems of obtaining equivalences contribute to a tendency for the best students to remain abroad and thus be lost to Greece. In short, the current state of affairs is not a healthy one.

The mobility of students in the world is an "interface" phenomenon. Although the interests of the receiving country and of the country of origin are different (even if occasionally they may be found to be complementary), the two countries are confronted by strategies of individuals that have been elaborated in response to specific conditions. Educational policy measures may accompany the phenomenon or precede it.

The circumstances of student mobility may be classified under two major headings: a) mobility arising from unequal conditions relative to the development of higher education in different countries, the case being that of countries which have no universities; and b) reciprocal mobility among countries having many points in common: mobility which is a source of intellectual gain for young people, a means of scientific and technical cooperation for the countries concerned, and the inception of a dynamic of integration of highly qualified human resources at the international level. The mobility of students among European countries and that promoted by certain European Community schemes such as ERASMUS (1) should be classed under the latter heading.

The case of Greek students, however, presents distinct peculiarities. That this is so is easily proven by the magnitude and the persistence of a phenomenon of which the complex causes and the consequences that can be interpreted in various ways have given rise, among other things, to complicated procedures for the recognition of diplomas obtained abroad.

I. The Amplitude of the Phenomenon

When certain aspects of Greek education began to be studied at the start of the 1960's, the large number of students registered in foreign universities was noted. The Ministry of Coordination gives the figure of 8,800 for 1961 (2). A set of data (which is far from exhaustive), accumulated subsequently, gives one an approximate idea (3) of the evolution of the number and the distribution of students abroad (Table 1).

Table 1

Development of the number of students abroad according to discipline (1961 — 1975)

Disciplines	Registration for courses leading to a first university degree and the percent of increase (1961 = 100)					Registration for courses leading to advanced university degrees and the percentage of increase (1965 = 100)			
	1961	1965	1971	1975	percent of increase: 1961 — 1975	1965	1971	1975	percent of increase: 1965 — 1975
Science	486	408	1046	2437	501.4%	79	315	900	1139.24%
Architecture	513	477	1342	3211	625.9%	5	76	179	3580.00%
Technology	3636	2476	3290	6438	177.1%	79	229	666	843.04%
Medicine	1665	715	2665	6874	412.8%	146	195	459	314.38%
Arts	237	200	328	966	407.6%	83	235	603	726.51%
Agricultural engineering	119	121	472	352	295.8%	20	48	170	850.00%
Fine Arts	—	—	—	287	—	—	—	—	—
Pedagogy	24	11	18	60	250.0%	—	—	—	—
Law	39	37	94	283	725.6%	92	239	476	517.39%
Social Sciences	337	352	703	1898	563.2%	149	265	889	596.64%
Other disciplines	—	37	218	406	—	34	62	35	—
Total	7056	4834	10176	23212	329.0%	687	1664	4377	637.12%

Source: *Report to the Ministry of Education by the Working Group concerned with Higher University Studies*, the State Press, Athens, 1977, 250 p.

Table 2

Number of European students studying abroad according to country of origin

Country	Number of students abroad
Austria	5,725
France	12,500
Germany, Fed. Rep. of	22,424
Greece	34,086
Italy	17,935
Netherlands	6,406
Spain	9,406
United Kingdom	14,513

Source: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook*, 1987, table 3.16.

Table 3

Evolution of the number of students abroad and of the exchange exported to cover their expenses

Year	Students abroad	Foreign exchange expressed in US dollars
1982	44,465	121,008,000
1983	44,046	119,470,000
1984	40,324	98,671,000
1985	28,754	98,851,000
1986	27,085	117,015,000

Source: Ministry of the National Economy.

The figures in Unesco publications, however, are more recent and at the same time more comparative. Thus, the data in the latest ***Statistical Yearbook*** (1987) indicate that Greece, with 34.086 students abroad ***in absolute figures***, takes 4th place in the world following three Asian countries (China, Iran, and Malaysia), while in Europe it is far ahead of all the other countries with students abroad (see Table 2 which lists eight European countries in terms of the number of their respective students studying abroad).

On 25 January 1988, the Ministry of the National Economy released figures to the Chamber of Deputies that were subsequently made public on the recent evolution of the number of Greek students abroad and of the foreign currency spent on them (Table 3). The fact that the considerable decrease from 1982 to 1986 of the number of students using foreign currency was not accompanied by a decrease in the total value of the foreign currency spent suggests, on one hand, that the decrease in student outflow is bound-up mostly with monetary fluctuations and with periods of inflation, and that, on the other hand, the two phenomena (the flow of students and the flow of foreign currency) continue to preoccupy the country which puts up with both developments rather than planning or controlling them.

The data were supplied by 50 receiving countries, and given variations according to specific circumstances, account for about 95 per cent of the known world total in recent years.

II. The Framework

The hypotheses that could be advanced in relation to the components of the phenomenon are historical, structural, and institutional, it being understood that all the components are to a great extent determined interactions which are both numerous and varied.

It is obvious that one should include certain aspects of the evolution of Greek higher education among the historical components.

The first point to make is that of the slow development of higher education. There were only three university establishments twenty-five years ago: the Universities of Athens and of Salonika and the Advanced Polytechnical School in Athens. Even though the number of establishments and of students has increased, the number of places available in them is far smaller than the number of places available in most of the European countries, as compared to the sizes of their populations, while demand is increasing at a far higher rate. In 1983, Greece placed 19th among 27 European countries with regard to the number of students enrolled in higher education establishments per 100 thousand inhabitants (4).

Furthermore, public expenditure for educational purposes accounts for a very small part of GNP even though it has been increasing in recent years (5).

Moreover, the practice of numerus clausus — the direct result of the situation described above — serves as a recruitment system for foreign universities.

Higher education has also suffered as a result of political events which have given rise to waves of migration that have included students: emigration of the vanquished as a result of the Civil War; institution of the "certificate of social views", which was only abolished in 1974; repression and a climate of intolerance which did not spare even the universities; military dictatorship from 1967 to 1974.

The pattern of Greek education is characterized by a preponderance of general education and the consequent weakness of technical and vocational education (Table 4). So far, no reform measures have succeeded in checking this tendency so as to make the possibility of technical education a viable alternative(6). Rather recent reforms have again favoured general education, in particular by facilitating the flow of school children from the first primary form to and including access to secondary schooling. There is little exaggeration in saying that the pyramid of general primary and secondary education is destined to turn into a square.

As, on the other hand, the diploma obtained at the end of general secondary schooling is worth very little on the employment market while at the same time being one of the requirements for admission to higher education, it tends to be viewed only in this light.

To make a long story short, the Greek educational system as a whole seems to be clearing a path leading directly to the gates of the universities.

Furthermore, fluid economic and social patterns create ambitions and expectations which necessarily require a university degree and give official recognition to a "panhellenic phantasm" that includes, in the strategy of every family, the obtaining of a degree (7). The importance assumed by the public sector in the employment pattern and the exceedingly large proportion of university graduates in the civil service help to reinforce this trend (8).

Among the institutional components of the phenomenon of an exceptionally large proportion of Greek students abroad, one might include the competitive admission to higher education establishments, the importance attached to university degrees (irrespective of the domain of study) in the recruitment for the civil service, and the establishment of salary scale for the latter.

The regulations governing the competitive examinations for admission to higher education institutions, within the limits of the available places, have been modified several times since 1964. And yet in every case the following constant is to be found: the image created and adhered to by Greek society as a whole according to which failure on that examination is tantamount to complete social failure, a failure that can be wiped out only by registration in a university abroad. This fact is corroborated by the frequently very modest social origins of Greek students abroad.

Greece still has no functioning third-cycle education system. The question was thoroughly studied by a working group appointed by the Ministry of National Education in 1977. Another working group, also appointed officially, submitted its proposals more recently. The dispositions of Law no. 1268/1982 on the establishment of a third cycle in the universities of the country and the dispositions of Law no. 1566/1985 superseding the preceding dispositions have not yet come into effect. The question remains on the agenda of meetings of the Higher Education Council, the most recent of which was held in February 1988.

Thus, quite naturally, those holding first diplomas and wishing to prepare for an academic career or simply to do graduate work turn to foreign universities.

It is significant to note that Greek demographers have incorporated the regularly occurring waves of Greek students moving to foreign universities into their surveys on migratory phenomena (9).

Obviously, the flow of Greek students registering in foreign universities is not characteristic of "student mobility" among European countries.

Table 4

Numbers of students in second level general education institutions and in technical and vocational institutions in some European countries

Countries	Years	General education	Technical and vocational	Technical / % general
	1985	450,662	374,335	83.1
Denmark	1984	339,835	144,024	42.4
Finland	1985	300,748	114,123	37.9
Greece	1983	690,382	99,986	14.5
Netherlands	1984	822,615	618,591	75.2
Norway	1984	283,685	104,212	36.7
Portugal	1985	330,008	127,317	38.6
Sweden	1984	400,698	195,291	48.7

Source: *Unesco Statistical Yearbook*, 1987, table 3.7 on numbers of students. Based on table 3.1, the countries, the patterns of which are not unlike that of Greece, have been tabulated as follows: 6+3+3.

III. Consequences

The consequences of this state of affairs are twofold: consequences that are not unlike the problems facing the developing countries (brain drain, flight of foreign exchange, cultural dependence phenomena, reproduction of inequalities through what we might describe as "an international division of studies"), and additional consequences which point to the peculiarity of the phenomenon of "Greek student emigration", one which is, for the most part, structural.

A comparative survey made by UNITAR in the late 1970's on the emigration and the return of university graduates has naturally included Greece in the group of developing countries with a considerable student emigration (10). The results of the survey indicated that Greece differs from the other countries in many ways, more particularly in terms of motivation, for most of the young Greeks left their country because they had failed in the examination for admission to a higher education institution in Greece or were afraid that they might fail.

Student migration, like every type of emigration, relieves short-term social pressures but raises medium- and long-term problems, especially when the graduates return, particularly if their return coincides with unfavourable employment conditions.

The growing numbers of graduates of foreign universities who have returned to Greece have made it necessary to set up a central body under the sponsorship of the Ministry of Education: The Inter-University Centre for the Recognition of Diplomas Obtained Abroad (11).

The Centre is entrusted with the task of certifying in each case, upon application of the person concerned, who has to submit his file and sit for an examination, whether a) the establishment attended is "homologous", i.e. at the same level as the comparable Greek higher education institution, and whether b) the degree obtained is "equivalent" to or "corresponds" with those awarded by Greek institutions, whether of university level, properly speaking, or not.

As a rule, for a degree to "correspond" to a first Greek university degree, four years' attendance is required for most disciplines, five years for the various diplomas in engineering, and six years for medicine. "Equivalence" concerns the contents of the curriculum.

Thus, in order to obtain a certification of the "correspondence" or the "equivalence" of one's degree, complementary examinations may be required in certain subject areas, as the case may be. An applicant requesting recognition of his degree may be asked to register in a Greek higher education institution for a term the completion of which is considered necessary for him to complete his studies according to the Greek system.

The Certificate issued by the Centre must be shown each time that the university degree is requested: a) for academic reasons — the preparation of a doctoral thesis or application for a post in a higher education institution, even a temporary one; b) for vocational reasons — in order to sit for an examination that entitles one to practice a certain profession (that of lawyer, engineer, architect . . .); in order to sit for a competitive examination entitling one to a post in the civil service or again in order to have oneself listed for appointment to a post for which a university degree is required (in primary or secondary education institutions, for example).

It should be noted that such a Certificate must include particulars, which are important for integration into the Greek vocational system, about the equivalence of grades and of quality appreciations.

The debates and the decisions of the Administrative Council of the Centre may set legal precedents, but they are not made public. Data accumulated by the Centre may soon be handled by a data processing system so as to greatly facilitate their diffusion.

As this step has not yet been taken, the information in our possession is only an approximation: about 65 thousand applications for the recognition of degrees are said to have been filed since 1979, a third of them for postgraduation degrees.

But this procedure has not met unanimous acceptance. Attention has been directed at the centralizing nature of the system and to its intricate and lengthy recognition process; moreover, the principle of complementary examinations has been questioned (12).

In short, the amplitude of the phenomenon of student outflow and of the inflow of returning graduates from which one must deduct the number of those who decide to stay abroad (the best ones, some say) has helped to create the mechanism which has been charged with the task of dealing with the problem.

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A cursory examination of international statistics will demonstrate that the case of Greek students abroad is not a typical case. Deeply rooted in the history of the country, strengthened by the pattern of employment, especially by that of the civil service, it endures owing to the pattern of secondary education and the limited resources devoted to higher education in the country. This phenomenon is one which no one wanted, which is uncontrolled, and which has never been made part of a coherent and consistent educational policy. This state of affairs cannot avoid having international repercussions with regard to decisions relative to certain aspects of the mobility of students and the equivalence of studies and of diplomas. In the case of Greece, the issue should be stated in different terms.

NOTES

1. The *Erasmus* Programme of Action of the European Community for student mobility aims at promoting that mobility which is deemed to be desirable and beneficial on a European scale.
2. Cf. OCDE, *The Mediterranean Regional Project. Reports According to Country: Greece*, Paris, 1965, pp. 67– 68, which points out that "It is doubtful whether it serves the real interests of the Greek people that such a large proportion of students should study abroad. A number of them . . . are lost to their native country. Especially the most gifted . . .".
3. The basic data in Table 1 were supplied by the Bank of Greece and refer to students receiving foreign currency from Greece. Those receiving scholarships from foreign bodies, as well as those working abroad and those who were receiving money for their upkeep from their families through other channels are consequently not included. By way of comparison, in 1971 the Bank of Greece listed a total of 11,840 students while Unesco put the total at 16,783 *(Higher Education in Europe: Problems and Prospects. A Statistical Survey*, ED-73/MINEUROP. II/Ref. I, Paris 1973).
4. Unesco, *1987 Statistical Yearbook*, Table 3.10.
5. *Ibid.*, Table 4.1. Intra-European comparisons are most unfavourable to Greece.
6. Cf. Marie Eliou, Ambiguities of a Contradictory Reform: the Greek Case, *Comparative Education*, no. 31—32, Paris, May, 1983.
7. Cf. C. Tsoukalas, *State, Society, Labour in Post-War Greece*, Athens, Themelio, 1986, 320 p.
8. *Ibid.*, also St. Pesmazoglou, *Education and Development in Greece (1948—1958): a Divergent Report*, Athens, Themelio, 1987, 620 p.
9. Cf. N. Polyzos, *The Demographic Challenge*, Athens, Exantas, 1981, pp. 41—51, and Hera Emke-Poulopoulou, *Problems of Emigration and of Return to One's Country*, Athens, IMEO-EDIM, 1986, pp. 173—176 and p. 227.
10. See A. Amira, Socio-economic Characteristics and Motivations for Emigration of Greek Graduates Returning to Greece from 1960 to 1971, *Social Science Review*, nos. 39—40, Athens, 1980. See also the same author with L. Maratou-Alipranti, Graduates of Higher Education Returning to Greece from East-European Countries (1960—1981), *Social Science Review*, no. 51, Athens, 1983.
11. The Centre, which was set up according to Law 741/1977 as supplemented by Law 782/1987, started functioning as of 1 April 1979 in accordance with presidential decree 233/1979. It is run by an Administrative Council composed of twelve university professors in various disciplines and of the Chairman of the Council. Some forty standing committees with advisory duties help the Administrative Council in carrying out its tasks.
12. The problem is very serious for graduates repatriated from East-European countries: "Apart from the examinations which they are obliged to sit in order to have their degree recognized, in many cases diplomas in special subjects for which there are no corresponding faculties in Greek universities are not recognized . . . They ask that the procedure be simplified; among other things, they are demanding that the examinations at least for those who have been professors or lecturers in universities be abolished . . ." (A. Amira and L. Maratou-Alipranti, *op. cit.*, p. 133).

Tribune

A MODEL FOR DEVELOPING COMMON MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES IN EUROPE*

Harold W. LAWSON

A model is presented that can be used as a common basis for developing inter-institutional Master's Degree programmes. The model addresses the question of academic recognition as well as that of the mobility of students and of faculty. The model is developed in the European context and is directed towards solving a number of current and future problems related to the development of a common Europe. Specifically, the Master's Degree model presented, if implemented, would provide a basis for at least one common European academic identity that would have an important impact, even on an intercontinental basis.

After a presentation of the origin and the background of the model, the issues and problems of transferable credit are presented along with a description of European initiatives to address the problems. Next, a case is made for the use of the Master's Degree level as a suitable basis for developing common programmes. A variety of important issues, attributes of the model as well as considerations in implementing it, are presented. The difficult question of fitting the model to existing national and local educational structures is addressed, and finally, some important potential "long-term" effects are presented.

Introduction

In Europe and elsewhere, there is a growing awareness of the importance of mobility amongst university students and faculty as one important pillar of the vitality of institutions of higher education, of industrial and economic growth, as well as, in the European case, of the gradual alignment of political, legal, economic and social policies, standards, and processes. Internationalization of education is not new to Europe; however, at this crucial point in history, when Europe is seeking a new identity, the need for widespread internationalization, available to larger numbers of students, has arisen.

In Europe, in view of the existing heterogeneous structures of higher education in the various countries, work towards the development of a climate of academic recognition and cooperation, and the creation of groupings favouring the "commonality" of academic programmes are essential. Indeed, international higher level education offerings have a specific duty to contribute to the identification of solutions to existing and future problems of European development.

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* The views presented in this paper are the personal views of the author. He wishes to express his appreciation to colleagues who have provided constructive criticism and have contributed to the development of the ideas expressed in the paper, firstly, to the Bureau of International Affairs and Academic Recognition under the leadership of Mr. Carl-Axel Axelsson at the Swedish National Board of Universities and Colleges in which several important initiatives have been taken to address the questions of Sweden-Europe relationships in higher education, and then to Carin Berg, Marianne Hildebrand, Lollie Bailey-Nilsson, and Robert Hall. Finally, the author would like to thank Carin Olausson for her constant support and Helena Streijffert, Hans Jalling, and Barbro Berg, for the useful discussions he has had with them.

Various efforts to achieve professional and academic recognition across national boundaries in Europe have been made, for example, the introduction of "the European Engineer" title, in which the combination of a university engineering degree and work experience encompassing seven years are required. As a part of the European Community (EC) efforts, the much publicized ERASMUS (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students) has evolved[1]. On a Nordic basis, a programme with goals similar to ERASMUS, entitled NORDPLUS, has been agreed upon by the Nordic Ministers Conference.

The purpose of this article is to argue in favour of a common European Master's Degree model, which would facilitate recognition and commonality amongst a potentially large number of cooperating university and institute groupings.

The implementation of Master's Degree programmes according to the model presented could make significant contribution towards solving existing and future problems of European development. Moreover, the establishment and gradual acceptance of European Master's Degree programmes would provide a unifying European educational identity that could have a significant worldwide impact.

The model proposal is based upon the fact that expecting a large number of countries to agree on a common university system or to make major revisions to their existing national educational structures in any reasonable period of time is not realistic. The model therefore provides for, "interfacing" a variety of existing heterogeneous academic systems at the Master's Degree level which offers many advantages as described below.

The model presented here is based upon a further refinement of a model developed to achieve a degree of commonality amongst seven Swedich universities and institutes in establishing the Swedish International University Consortium (SIU)[2]. The purpose of commonality, in the case of the SIU consortium, is to develop a rational basis for the promotion and operation of existing and new programmes, primarily at the Master's Degree level, on an international basis, by the various consortium members. The extension of the SIU model can also be seen as a rational basis for cooperation amongst several universities (within or over national borders) in developing common programmes that promote mobility of students and faculty, consequently promoting academic recognition and thus producing many positive "side-effects".

Prior to presenting the model, we shall, in the two following sections, consider some of the major problems of achieving transferable credit and further develop the case for the Master's Degree level as a common basis for European higher level education.

The Question of Transferable Credit

The recognition of academic credit across national borders normally presents problems. While nationalistic bureaucracies may be a major source of hindrances, recognition must be based upon *professional trust* amongst colleagues, trust that courses of study followed at other institutions live up to the same standard as one's own. Within national boundaries, for example, in the USA, transferable credit is often facilitated by inter-university agreements. In some cases, in which "integrated" junior or branch colleges exist, transferability is built into the system. The growing community college movement in the USA has also led to agreements concerning the transferability of credits to institutions. Moreover, the transferability of credit in the USA has been established through long experience in a climate of "mobility" in which over time, the quality of education at various institutions of higher learning has been established. Europe has not yet accumulated such long-term experience. It will have to be successively established.

The Problem of Heterogeneity

This problem comes from the basic nature, traditions, legal status, bureaucracies and historical development of both national and local systems of education. Structural differences exist in the organization and the administration of degree programmes, the academic degree titles, as well as in the individual courses of study involved. If systems vary widely, attitudes of professional trust are not easily developed.

The Problem of Granularity

What constitutes a basic unit of education (credits, a number of lectures, laboratory sessions, private study hours, etc.)? There is obviously a level of "fine" granularity in the structuring of transferable credit that is too fine to be a realistic basis for developing a manageable system of recognition. On the other hand, recognition can be based upon a "coarse" granularity according to which the mastery of a "body of knowledge" is the important issue, not the minute details of how this level of knowledge is attained. Coarse granularity, of course, can lead to such questions as what constitutes and who determines bodies of knowledge.

The Master's Degree model we shall consider addresses these two central problems of heterogeneity and granularity.

European Initiatives to Achieve Groupings of Recognition

Academic recognition is one of the four principal parts of the ERASMUS programme. A plan also exists to establish a pilot scheme for the academic recognition of degrees and course units. It is known as ECTS (European Community Course Transfer System). Its goal is not to obtain widespread agreement in the short run but to identify groups of universities and of institutes that would be willing to cooperate on a voluntary basis. Each grouping would agree to participate for a six year period.

Implementing ECTS recognition at the undergraduate level would seemingly require significant effort and be faced with many "imperfect" and "subjective" decision processes, particularly if too fine a level of granularity were utilized. It would seem to be easier to work towards recognition based upon coarse granularity at a level above that of the existing highly heterogeneous undergraduate structure. Therefore, in the following sections, we first argue the case for using the Master's Degree as a common basis and then present a possible model for developing an academically and professionally sound European Master's Degree and some considerations for its implementation.

The Case for the Master's Degree as a Common Basis

The case for the Master's Degree as an appropriate level in the educational hierarchy for cooperation amongst groupings of European universities can be supported from several points of view.

— The Master's Degree can either be a *terminal degree* or be seen as an *intermediate degree* on the way to the obtention of a doctorate. In the former case, it is a useful degree level for students pursuing careers in industry, commerce, or government. In the latter case, it provides a point of evaluation for both the student and his teachers as to the appropriateness of his pursuing further graduate education.

— The Master's Degree level is already well established in some European countries, in particular in the United Kingdom.

— A reasonably large number of European students, as well as students from other parts of the world, seek entrance into universities in the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom in order to follow programmes at the Master's Degree level. Thus, there already exists widespread knowledge about this level of education around the world.

— Several American universities have established Master's Degree programmes in Europe, in some cases via European affiliates and/or as consortiums of several institutions.

— Within Europe, many private institutions have arisen that offer Master's Degree programmes; in particular, the Master of Business Administration (MBA degree) has become quite popular.

— In those countries in which a Master's Degree can be earned, this degree is usually intended to provide additional specific knowledge. The assumption is that a preceding undergraduate degree provides the broad basic knowledge that is prerequisite to the pursuit of the Master's Degree. Thus, in principle, Master's Degree programmes can be more easily adapted to coarse granularity than a programme of which the goal is to cover a broad range of subjects aimed at providing basic knowledge.

While this background points to the "appropriateness" of the Master's Degree as a common basis, a thesis of this paper holds that a common European Master's Degree, both in terms of structure and of implementation, can and should be developed to address European problems and to assist in providing a European academic identity. This requirement leads to several conclusions about the model developed in this paper, one which results in a somewhat different programme emphasis than is prevalent, for example, with regard to American, United Kingdom, and Canadian Master's Degree programmes.

The Master's Degree Model

In order to gain an understanding of the proposed Master's Degree model, we shall first consider its rationale as related to several important issues, especially with respect to the development of arguments that are relevant in the European context.

Importance of Research Methodology. Project Work, and a Thesis Requirement

The first issue is related to the importance of developing and demonstrating competence in research methodology. Some existing Master's Degree programmes do not require a master's thesis, and in most degree programmes at this level, specific education in research methodology is typically *not* provided. However, these degree components are deemed to be an extremely important part of an eventual European Master's Degree programme.

The development of research skills, including the ability to communicate research results verbally and in written form, will be essential to moving Europe forward in all fields of endeavour. Naturally, these skills are mandatory for those who will go on to pursue the doctorate; however, they are important for those taking terminal Master's Degrees. In the latter case, this emphasis is justified by the fact that Europe needs and will continue to need well educated citizens who can understand, interpret, and implement (apply) the results of research.

Individual Work (Studies) versus Group Work (Studies)

The emphasis in most existing Master's Degree programmes around the world is on the performance of the individual. The individual selects a set of "acceptable" courses, follows these courses, is examined, and produces a Master's thesis (if required). While individual competence is important, the current and forseeable European context requires that greater importance be placed, in the emphasis of studies and project and thesis work, on small groups.

Students must get to know one another well and learn to communicate facts, concepts, ideas, etc., formally and informally.

A further important justification for the group work (studies) approach is that the areas of study considered as well as the problems addressed for projects and thesis work may be of such a dimension that they cannot be tackled on an individual basis in a limited period of time.

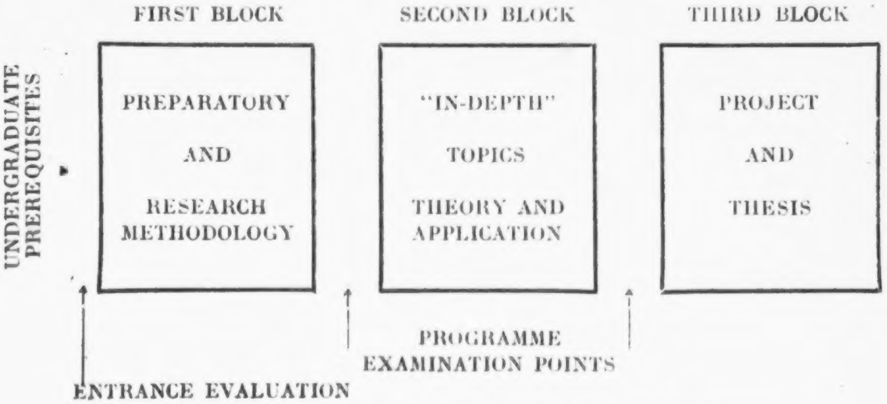
Free Course Selection versus Guided Programmes

The position taken on the previous issue leads naturally to the question of freedom of individual selection in academic programmes leading to the Master's Degree. Due to the emphasis on small groups as well as to the fact that the programmes are designed to develop specific knowledge, the selection of many alternative courses of study cannot be encouraged. Obviously, economic considerations also lead one to the guided programme approach.

The Language of Instruction

From a practical point of view, agreement upon a common language of instruction for the proposed European Master's Degree programmes is obviously advantageous. However, since the model to be presented is based on groupings of cooperating universities, there is, in principle, no reason why only one language needs to be used. While there are strong nationalistic motivations related to this issue, this liberal language view must be contrasted to the need to improve communications in Europe. The fact that many of the largest industrial and commercial organizations in Europe use English as their official "corporate language" will undoubtedly have an important impact and should be given serious consideration in selecting the language of instruction.

Now that we have considered some of the major issues, we now present the general model structure as portrayed in Figure 1. To further understand the model and its implications we continue the discussion by describing several of its important attributes.


FIRST BLOCK
SECOND BLOCK
THIRD BLOCK
UNDERGRADUATE PREREQUISITES
PREPARATORY AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY
"IN-DEPTH" TOPICS THEORY AND APPLICATION
PROJECT AND THESIS
PROGRAMME EXAMINATION POINTS
ENTRANCE EVALUATION

A COMMON MODEL FOR MASTER'S DEGREE PROGRAMMES

Figure 1

A programme in a specific discipline, or some suitable subset thereof, is agreed upon by two or more (hopefully not too many) universities and/or institutes. According to the notion of coarse granularity, the programme contents are established on an inter-institutional basis. Thus, an inter-institutional *Programme Faculty Collegium* is formed. This collegium will be charged with the task of establishing, updating, and assuring, through consensus, the stability of the body of knowledge relevant for the discipline(s) involved. Selection and/or production of appropriate course literature, laboratory experiment instructions (if required), the establishment of entrance requirements, intermediate examinations, etc., are relevant issues for the collegium.

— Once agreed upon, the programme consists of three blocks, each of which runs for approximately one-half academic year (normally about 5 months per block).

— That *all* programmes contain studies in research methodology, including important historical developments (especially those relevant to Europe), constructive criticism of published works, verbal communication as well as instruction aimed at developing appropriate writing and documentation skills should be provided. While some aspects of these components may vary amongst the various disciplines, a large proportion can and should be treated in common. The emphasis on research methodology should be highly visible in that at least 20% of the first block should be dedicated to the various topics of these essential components.

The early introduction of the research methodology components is critical for instilling in the student the understanding that what he is striving for is a good final programme result in the form of a successful project and thesis. It should be noted that, in addition to the research methodology component, one-third of the student's time is devoted to the project and thesis, a more significant proportion than that required in most existing Master's Degree programmes for which a thesis is obligatory.

— Each participating institution sets the dimension of its local programme for a maximum (and minimum) number of participants *(study places)* based upon local capacity.

— The programme can be offered at each participating institution as a part of its own academic programme and, where possibile, adapted to fit the local norms of course organization and administration.

— A certain agreed upon number of study places are made available to students from the other participating institutions. Various combinations of studies are possible in this regard. For example, a student may take block one at home, block two at another participating institution, and block three either at the foreign participating institution or at the home institution.

— Where possible, members of the Programme Faculty Collegium should be encouraged to spend at least one-half if not one full academic year at one of the other participating institutions. As a minimum, frequent guest lecture visits at the participating institutions are essential in order to assure stable consensus as to programme development.

Considerations Relative to the Implementation of the Model

Now that we have considered some of the more important attributes of the model, let us consider some practical questions relative to its implementation.

— With regard to the question of entrance evaluation, it is highly desirable that some form of testing be used as well as academic records, letters of recommendation, and, if possible, personal interviews. It is at this point that the most important decisions about individual demonstrations of competence are required. The establishment of testing at this level can be significantly expedited via the early utilization of the test batteries of the Educational Testing Service (ETS) of Princeton, New Jersey. ETS has had many years of experience in the international administration of their GRE (Graduate Record Examininations) and GMAT (Graduate Management Aptitude Test). These examinations are well established around the world and can be taken in Europe on a regular basis.[3] While it may be desirable in the long run to develop examinations which are specifically European, the use of ETS services and perhaps eventual USA-Europe cooperation in the elaboration of new tests can provide a means for the early start-up of programmes.

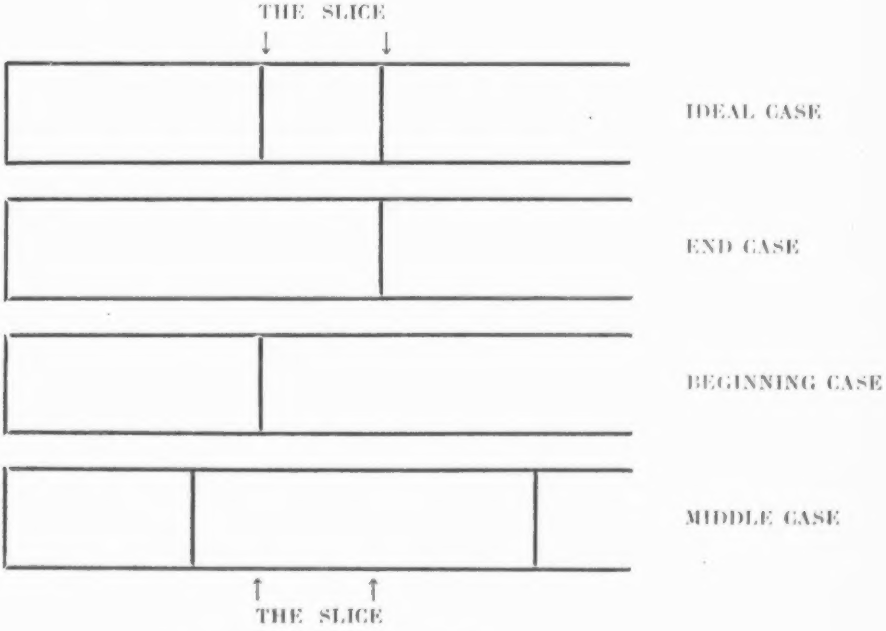
— The Programme Faculty Collegium can, by consensus and over time, develop and refine their own programme testing strategies for verifying the „coarse grain" competence of individuals at the programme evaluation points indicated in Figure 1.

— An interesting possibility in exploiting the group character of the proposed studies could be pursued through the use of "Tutored Video Instruction" as pioneered by Professor James Gibbons, Dean of Engineering at Stanford University. Using this pedagogical approach, groups of 5 to 10 students are given instruction under the direction of a tutor who controls the starting and stopping of prerecorded lecture tapes. At stopping points, the tutor solicits in-depth involvement in discussion on the part of the group members. Results following several years of practical utilization at Stanford and elsewehere indicate that this method actually improves comprehension and examination results.

— If students are to enter an educational programme or block for which the language of instruction is not their mother tongue they should be offered language training at their home institutions as a "pre" programme or block requirement. The intensity and the organization of such programmes will vary from case to case.

Fitting the Model to Existing Educational Programmes

As stated earlier in this article, a wide variety of academic programmes exists in Europe. The model proposed here need not fit "exactly" into each existing undergraduate and graduate education structure. Where it can best fit must be based upon a judgment of where best to teach the programme-relevant "body of knowledge" in the existing national or local programmes. In order to illustrate this situation, let us consider Figure 2, in which we define the concept of the *Master's Degree Slice.*



THE MASTER'S DEGREE SLICE

Figure 2

As noted in this figure, the "ideal case" is that in which the Master's Degree is a self-contained unit beginning directly after the termination of an undergraduate degree and leading to the possibility of continuing graduate education after the termination of the Master's Degree. However, possibilities also exist for the Master's Degree Slice to be taken at the end, at the beginning, or in the middle of an existing degree programme. In the latter three cases, the Master's Degree can and should be awarded in addition to the degree that is normally provided.

Potential "Long-Term" Effects

The model we have considered is, in the opinion of the author, a rational model to adopt for academic development in Europe. The author does not propose, nor expect, its "complete" adoption; instead, it is sufficient if a number of groupings of universities and institutes in Europe, over time, develop programmes along the lines that have been presented in this paper.

The gradual acceptance of the proposed approach to Master's Degree programmes by a sufficient number of well established institutions would firmly establish the notion of a European Master's Degree. This acceptance could provide Europe with an academic identity which would have an important impact upon academic institutions in other parts of the world.

The gradual acceptance of the model by consensus amongst many groupings in Europe can, in the long run, provide a mechanism for establishing new goals for existing programmes or new national undergraduate programmes in which the entrance requirements for the European Master's Degree would be seen as a "target at which to shoot". Finally, a widespread consensus amongst a large number of groupings can eventually lead to the development of a "policy statement" about the European Master's Degree in a manner similar to the policy statement for the American Master's Degree.[4]

It might be useful at this point to make a few comments relative to the practical matter of financing concrete developments according to the model. As mentioned earlier, the ECTS (European Community Course Credit Transfer System) portion of the ERASMUS project provides one mechanism for obtaining the funds necessary for the development of the sorts of inter-institutional programmes to which the proposed model belongs. However, the *most important* requirement is that capable and enthusiastic groupings of colleagues from multiple institutions agree to build Programme Faculty Collegia for developing, organizing, administering and updating their programmes. The funding of these activities can come from the institutions themselves, through agreed upon inter-governmental funds used to support this form of cooperation as well as through collective funding of the kind provided by the ECTS part of ERASMUS.

Finally, the author sincerely hopes that this model can contribute to establishing points of concrete discussion for European inter-institutional cooperation.

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TRANSFRONTIER REGIONAL UNIVERSITY COOPERATION (TRUC)

Denis CLARE

Academic mobility is up and running in the European Community. Beyond its borders, there are signs that non-EC countries also do not want to be left out of what seems to be an important development. Hand on the heels of the Joint Study Programmes (1976—1986), ERASMUS and COMETT have been launched albeit with limited budgets. Will their resources be sufficient to meet growing demand? What are the prospects for non-Community countries that want to participate?

This article assumes that the momentum for mobility will be greater than the resources available or predicted to meet it and that complementary strategies will have to be sought for and found if a great wave of enthusiasm for cooperation across borders is not to be frustrated. It describes the Council of Europe's recent initiatives in promoting transfrontier regional university cooperation, in various forms, and sees in them possible models for developing exchanges between regions on a modest flexible ad-hoc basis.

What TRUC, appropriately named, has so far achieved is quite modest: a preliminary statement of intention which takes as its banner FER—*Formation, Emploi, Region* — an inventory of agreements [1] between parties (many of which seem to be neither regional nor adjacent to frontiers nor specifically concerned with employment as opposed to academic study or research) and a few samples of surveys of employer needs in regions of France [2].

More recently, the November 1987 workshop in Strasbourg, brought attention to the fact that *in effect* only a small number of institutions in two areas [3] were really engaged in trying to develop something innovative. The institutions involved were *regional* (Saar, Lorraine, Luxembourg; and Aquitaine, Galicia, Costa Verde); the projects, *transfrontier* (across the common borders of the above regions); and the objectives, *vocational* (related to identifying the further training required by graduates in order to train them for managerial roles in the local labour markets). Tentative soundings made in both areas indicated that while construction and informatics were important in the northern region, the needs of the wine and food industries and the requirements of small businesses that were trying to adjust to modern markets were considered important in the southern region.

Agreement was reached in Strasbourg that the next stage would consist of in-depth explorations via questionnaires and interviews with employers by postgraduate students of the professional sectors identified. The students would undertake surveys as supervised parts of their postgraduate work. By covering one sector in the three countries, each student would involve himself in a transfrontier language and cultural element. Additional professional guidance in terms of needs analysis would be provided by the French employers' organization APEC (Mr. Vilpoux).

The identification of the job-oriented complementary training needs of new graduates with the regional labour market will certainly raise a number of further questions of wider import. Where should such training be undertaken? In the academic institute or on the job? By whom? To what extent does the institute already teach "transferable skills" (what exactly are they?) and leave specific job skills to the employer? Who will pay? Is the experience of the British SERC's *Teaching Company Scheme*[4] of relevance here? In this scheme, company and institute are closely involved from the start in the design and the delivery of the postgraduate degree: academic and specialist staff of the company move freely between the academic department and the shop floor, and students spend considerable time with both kinds of staff members in both settings. The result is a degree which is at once academically respectable and *professionally accredited.* A further factor — and one that is likely to also have a place in the scheme under consideration — is that the *company* funds many of the activities of the Teaching Company Scheme and sponsors many of the students. It is also to be hoped that the gains made in the PICKUP (Professional Industrial and Commercial Updating) initiative of the British Department of Education and Science will be looked at by the researchers and their supervisors. In the context of TRUC, the FEU/PICKUP project report, *Competency-based Vocational Education: A Case Study*[5], is a relevant and useful document.

Another useful experience and one which serves as a reminder that cross-border regional cooperation in academic and professional training is not altogether new is the programme masterminded by the University of Ulster and described in a paper[6] presented by Dr. Turner and Professor Riley at the University of Lancaster on 16 September 1987.

The paper describes a two-year programme which was intended to encourage the development and the expansion of small and medium size enterprises. The course was taken on a part-time basis by managers employed in firms on both sides of the Anglo-Irish border. The method of delivery consisted of case studies drawn from the firms of the participants. The University provided staff and back-up resources as required. The managers benefitted from sharing one another's experiences, successes, and failures. The firms benefitted from having intensive consultancies on specific problems.

The scheme was funded jointly by the firms, the University, and the European Social Fund. The University of Ulster intends to repeat this experiment, duly modified in the light of the initial experience, in partnership with Portuguese and Greek institutions, building on regional, commercial, and personal connections. The second project proposes to involve experienced and trainee managers side by side and to have the trainees undertake internships in companies involved in overseas markets.

The region-to-region connection, underpinned by shared economic and cultural factors, has clearly emerged as a sufficient qualification, even where there is no common border, for project support by the Strasbourg workshop. The proposal made by the University of Malta to host a conference for institutions in the Mediterranean region concerned with raising the level of tourism in their areas was seen as the first step towards identifying manpower training needs and therefore future roles for university/commercial cooperation in the region.

At the start of this article I suggested that a new scheme of inter-university cooperation could only be justified, and therefore considered worthy of support, if it were seen to be significantly different from what already exists. Perhaps the originality of TRUC can be best brought out by making a direct comparison with ERASMUS, bearing in mind that ERASMUS is, to all intents and purposes, a continuation of ten years of Joint Study programmes; whereas TRUC is relatively new.

While the long-term aim of both programmes is to promote academic and professional mobility in Europe, ERASMUS is *academically* oriented in wanting to internationalize the degree curricula of specific subject areas like business studies and engineering whereas. TRUC is *vocational,* looking beyond the first degree to complementary training which graduates should be given in order to meet the needs of employers. A comparison of the degrees in European Business Administration as offered by Middlesex Polytechnic and its continental partners in Rheims, Reutlingen, and Madrid and the in-service training of the University of Ulster described above is revealing both in terms of *level, methodology, professional orientation,* and *sources of funding.*

ERASMUS seeks to forge *international* links and industrial ties with the aim of promoting job opportunities in an increasingly international market. Bilingualism and a citizen-of-Europe mentality are complements to this programme. TRUC focuses on *regional* needs by encouraging institutions in the same area to assist local industry by providing appropriate research and training for potential employees.

Staff members involved in ERASMUS are concerned with *curricula, examinations,* and *evaluation* of students. In the case of TRUC, staff members are engaged in the supervision of *research* undertaken in the marketplace.

Students involved in ERASMUS take a substantial part of their degree courses in partner institutions which give them academic credit. Students involved in TRUC engage, across borders, in postgraduate research which may be credited towards the award of a higher degree by their respective home institutions.

ERASMUS has a planned budget derived from central European Community funds with subheadings for language tuition (which, as an example, may cover instruction for up to one year in Greek), teacher substitution, academic recognition centres, promotional activities, and so on. In contrast to this well-funded scheme, TRUC budgeting is largely *ad hoc* with the Council of Europe doing what it can, within its slender means, to encourage innovation and experimentation. TRUC attempts to obtain support from employers for training programmes that will provide them with high-level manpower.

ERASMUS is large [7], with a growth rate already planned over the next few years: 1987 ECU: 10 million; 1988 ECU: 30 million; 1989 ECU: 45 million. TRUC growth will depend upon the willingness of employers to pay for services rendered.

ERASMUS is confined to the European Community. TRUC recognizes no boundaries.

Possibly this comparison overdramatizes the differences between the two schemes. A fairer comparison might have been made between TRUC and COMETT, a scheme which is also new and covers university/industry liaison and in time will develop international sandwich courses across the European Community. COMETT will serve many of the same objectives as

TRUC, mainly in technology, and at predictably greater expense. For the moment, however, the activity of COMETT seems to be largely confined to the setting up of national consortia. It is also confined to the European Community.

The element of expense is not one which can be ignored. As the momentum for academic mobility grows, ERASMUS and COMETT may not be able to meet the demand generated even within the Community, especially if *substantial funding for fewer projects* is preferred to *minimal funding for many* and priority is given to the small countries of the Community to help them meet their quotas. The situation at the first round of ERASMUS when two thirds of the applications were turned down — including the Leeds/Dortmund programme that was proudly featured in a special ERASMUS number of DELTA [8] should not be forgotten. (In the most recent round, the *Times Higher Education Supplement* of 1 July [9] declares "because of the high application rate only about half the programmes submitted could be accepted". What happens to the other half?)

If such circumstances continue to be repeated, the various strategies developing within TRUC might be seen to offer alternatives for replacing rejected proposals with ad hoc arrangements for pursuing local, or shared, work-related targets as well as serving as models for non-Community countries.

They could thus contribute, in their own small way, to bringing the barriers down in Europe, both within and without the Community.

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Information

CEPES NEWS:

New Ratifications of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region

Three more states have recently deposited the instruments of ratification of the European Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education: Turkey (on April 24, 1988), Czechoslovakia (on May 6, 1988) and Norway (on June 2, 1988).

The number of the Contracting Parties to the Convention has thus risen to 27: 26 Member States of the Europe Region, and Australia.

The table below presents the state of signing and of ratification of the Unesco European Convention as of 30 June 1988.

Countries invited at the International Conference of December 1979 with voting rights	Countries which signed the Final Act of the Conference	Countries which signed the Convention	Countries which ratified the Convention	Countries outside the Region adhering to the Convention
1	2	3	4	5
Albania **	—	—	—	Australia — 06.08.1986
Austria	—	21.08.85	25.03.86	
Belgium	×	21.12.79	24.09.86	
Bulgaria	×	21.12.79	22.04.81	
Byelorussian SSR	×	21.12.79	03.03.83	
Canada	×	—	—	
Czechoslovakia	×	—	06.05.88	
Cyprus **	—	19.03.85	19.03.85	
Denmark	×	21.12.79	09.12.82	
Finland	×	21.12.79	19.01.82	
France	×	21.12.79	—	
German Democratic Rep.	×	21.12.79	26.08.81	
Germany, Federal Rep. of	×	21.12.79	—	
Greece	×	21.12.79	—	
Holy See	×	21.12.79	10.06.82	
Hungary	×	21.12.79	14.09.82	
Iceland **	—	—	—	

1	2	3	4	5
Ireland	—	—	—	
Israel	×	21.12.79	13.08.81	
Italy	×	10.06.80	20.01.83	
Lichtenstein *	—	—	—	
Luxembourg	×	21.12.79	—	
Malta	×	24.03.83	24.03.83	
Monaco	—	—	—	
Netherlands	×	24.11.81	15.06.82	
Norway	×	21.12.79	2.06.88	
Poland	×	21.12.79	28.10.82	
Portugal	×	21.12.79	29.08.84	
Romania	×	21.12.79	—	
San Marino	×	21.12.79	15.04.83	
Spain	×	21.12.79	31.08.82	
Sweden	×	21.12.79	07.03.84	
Switzerland	×	—	—	
Turkey	×	21.12.79	28.04.88	
Ukrainian SSR	×	21.12.79	16.03.82	
USSR	×	21.12.79	26.01.82	
United Kingdom	×	21.12.79	22.10.85	
USA	×	21.12.79	—	
Yugoslavia	×	21.12.79	22.05.81	

* Invited without voting right.

** Absent at the 1979 Conference.

The ratification of the Convention by the above-mentioned states on the eve of the 4th Session of the Regional Committee on the application of the Convention (27—29 September 1988) marks a new and important step forward on the way to turning the Convention into a working instrument for co-operation in the field of higher education in the Europe Region.

With the increase in mobility noticeable in many parts of the Region and the future prospects for greater ease of movement between countries in the Region, the facilitation of the mutual recognition of studies, diplomas and degrees, notably through the adoption of this regional instrument of co-operation, acquires particular importance.

BULGARIA :

Regulations in Support of Student-Mothers

The Regulations on the application of the Law on Higher Education were supplemented in 1987 by the following provisions:

1. Pregnant students and student-mothers with children of up to 6 years of age have the right to sit state examinations in 2 ordinary sessions; they are also entitled to sit a second examination in case of failure.

2. These categories of students have the right to choose personalized conditions of study as follows:

a) Their studies are based on individualized curricula, sufficiently flexible with regard to attendance at classes, and on individualized examination schedules;

b) These students are exempt from specific teaching activities provided that the number of hours they miss does not exceed 50% of the total number of hours foreseen for one semester;

c) They may benefit from the status of extra-mural students if they comply with the requirements stipulated in the curricula for extra-mural studies.

On the basis of a timetable approved by the dean of the respective faculty, the same categories of students enjoy the right to sit examinations in the disciplines for which they have successfully fulfilled all requirements during the semester. They can be promoted to the succeeding level of studies even if they have failed up to two examinations provided they make up the latter during the next year of study.

In those cases in which both parents are students, one of them can benefit from the above advantages until the child is 6 years old.

The length of study for student mothers can be prolonged up to two years for each newly born child until the end of the last semester of studies.

(Source: *Upravlenie na obrazovanieto,* Sofia, No. 4, 1987)

CANADA:

1. Meeting of the Council of Ministers of Education of Canada (CMEC) Toronto, February 25—26, 1988

The Council of Ministers of Education, Canada, at its 52nd Meeting, created a new Committee of Ministers of Postsecondary Education to address issues associated with the postsecondary sector. These issues include accessibility, student assistance, international students in Canada, a shared information base on higher education, and research on postsecondary education. The new committee will also promote consultation between the federal government and provincial governments and with national nongovernmental organizations on matters of mutual concern.

The Council outlined major issues which will be addressed in the coming months by the provinces through the CMEC:

I. Adult Illiteracy

Ministers released a report at their meeting describing programmes and initiatives taken in Canada by provincial governments to fight adult illiteracy.

II. Education and the Labour Market

The Council, along with ministers responsible for labour market matters and ministers responsible for the status of women, is preparing a joint statement on education/labour market strategies. Canada will need new job training and education strategies to remain competitive in the face of technological change, industrial restructuring, and new trading conditions.

III. Student Financial Assistance

The Council, through the work of the Federal-Provincial Consultative Committee on Student Financial Assistance, will be cooperating with the Department of the Secretary of State in a review of the Canada Student Loan Plan (CSLP). The CSLP issues currently under review include the provision of greater flexibility in repayment schedules, modifications to the "interest relief" component of the programme, revisions to the weekly full-time student loan limit, and improved assistance for certain categories of students.

IV. Improved Statistical Database of Education

A deputy ministers' working group has been created and has begun to examine the current Statistics Canada education databases with a view to identifying elements of an improved national education statistics programme.

V. Copyright

The Council has agreed to initiate an interprovincial exchange of ideas and experiences in matters relating to the proposed revision to the Copyright Act. The Council Chairman will seek a meeting as soon as possible with appropriate federal ministers to discuss provincial and territorial concerns with respect to proposed changes in the Act.

During the course of its meeting, the Council met with the Secretary of State, the Honourable David Crombie, and the following matters were discussed:

1. *Research On Postsecondary Education*

Ministers agreed on the need for a greater emphasis on research on postsecondary education. It was further agreed that there is a need for an inventory of what is currently being done in this area, and ministers noted that work is already underway in this regard.

2. *Official Languages In Education*

Members of the Council pursued with the Secretary of State their discussions on a new Protocol for bilateral agreements on minority-language education and second-language instruction. The current Protocol expires on March 31, 1988. Provincial ministers stressed the need for significant increases in federal funding to meet the costs of the maintenance of existing programmes and the development of new activities.

3. *Science and Technology*

With respect to the recent announcement by the Prime Minister regarding additional funding for science and technology. The members of Council expressed their willingness to work in concert with the federal government in developing modalities of collaboration to give effect to the recent announcement.

The Council stressed the need for the federal government to enter into in-depth consultation with provincial education authorities on the details of the proposed Canada Scholarship programme and Centres of Excellence, in order to harmonize federal initiatives with existing or projected provincial programmes. Provincial ministers also indicated that the provinces should be consulted regarding decisions on funds which have not as yet been allocated.

In response to provincial concerns, the Secretary of State indicated the intention of his department to convene a meeting of provincial officials and representatives of the Ministry of State for Science and Technology to consider and to make recommendations to the federal government regarding a national approach to these two programmes.

4. *International Students*

Noting the recent announcements made by the Minister of Employment and Immigration regarding changes to the federal foreign student policy, the members of the Council reiterated their interest in continuing federal/provincial consultation in this area. The objective of the ongoing dialogue between the two levels of government will be to ensure a compatible approach as to policy development with respect to international students.

(Source: *Communiqué* of the Council of Ministers of Education of Canada, Toronto, February, 1988)

2. Canadian Universities Committed to Development in Africa

A United Nations report recently issued by the Secretary General highlights the mounting economic crisis that threatens to undo the hard-won gains in output achieved by many African countries in recent years. Collapsing international commodity prices, the growth of Africa's foreign debt, and a decline in real terms in development assistance have combined to reduce the quality of life. The resulting instability and social stresses threaten to further retard the development process.

Canada's Official Development Assistance

If there is one lesson to be learned it is that the process of development is long-term and requires the sustained commitment of people, resources, and institutions. There are no "band-aid" solutions. This point of view was emphasized in *For Whose Benefit?*, the report of the House of Commons Standing Committee on External Affairs and International Trade (Winegard Committee) that studied Canada's official development assistance policies and programmes. The committee stressed that Canadian assistance must be targeted for the long haul and that it must be centred on human resource development as a principal dimension of all projects. The report and the Canadian government response to it (entitled *To Benefit A Better World)* bear careful reading as there are strong indications that these documents will set the agenda for Canada's Official Development Assistance for some time to come.

Many of the Winegard Committee's over 100 recommendations are directly relevant to university activity in international development. The report describes Canada's university sector as a major resource which is underutilized in

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development assistance projects. The report recommends major increases in the funding available for the support of university projects. The committee also proposes that the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) support several "centres of excellence" in the universities to develop concentration of expertise in various sectors relevant to development assistance. Moreover it advocates major decentralization of decision making to the field.

CIDA is developing new and revised implementation procedures for its future policies and programmes. These will eventually be released as "Strategy 2000", a plan that will undoubtedly affect the way in which universities interact with CIDA.

Canada's universities have a record of extensive, long-term commitment to development in Africa. AUCC's database, Canadian University Projects in International Development, lists some 250 formal linkages/projects in 40 African countries over the last few years. The total value of these projects, including contributions from Canadian and Third World institutions, is more than $ 146 million. Countries with the most projects, in descending order by number of projects, are: Kenya-25, Nigeria-19, Morocco-16, Tanzania-15, Ethiopia-12, Tunisia-12, Senegal-11, Malawi-10, and Zimbabwe-10. An additional 16 projects involve more than one African country. Most of the projects have resulted in ongoing contacts of one kind or another between Canadian universities and African government departments and educational institutions.

A major goal for the AUCC International Division as a facilitator of the international initiatives is to work to make that happen. Together with the universities, both in Canada and abroad, and with CIDA, IDRC, and similar bodies, it hopes to strengthen the conditions and to mobilize the resources that will enable the university community to apply its considerable expertise to the problems of development.

(Source: *AUCC Newsletter*, winter: 1987—1988)

3. Number of Degree Holders Up Sharply, Census Finds

More than twice as many Canadians held university degrees in 1986 as in 1971, according to new census data.

A total of 1.9 million Canadians, or 9.6 per cent of those aged 15 and over, had a university degree in 1986. Seventeen years ago, 718,775 Canadians had a degree. In 1971, 4.8 per cent of all Canadians of 15 and over were university graduates, said Statistics Canada, the federal agency that carried out the 1986 census. The agency reported that between 1981 and 1986 alone, the number of university graduates had risen 26 per cent, while the number with master's degrees had increased 32 per cent and those with doctorates, 20 per cent.

The census found Canada's highest proportion of university graduates in Alberta, where they represented 13 per cent of the provincial population, followed by Ontario at 12 per cent. Trailing the rest of the country were Newfoundland at 7 per cent and New Brunswick at 9 per cent.

Some 30 per cent of Canadians, including the 800,000 enrolled full time in colleges or universities in 1985—86, had received some postsecondary education by 1986, the census found.

Labor-market statistics generated by the census showed that women continued to move into occupations traditionally dominated by men. Between 1981 and 1986, for example, the number of women in management grew 61 per cent and the number in the natural sciences and engineering grew 40 per cent. Overall, employment grew 27 per cent in management and 12 per cent in the natural sciences and engineering.

The largest employment growth in any sector, 29 per cent, was in the social sciences. Among male university graduates, business was the most popular field. University-educated women entered fields related to education, counseling, and recreation. Women accounted for 55 per cent of all university graduates under 25, and 33 per cent of those between 45 and 64, the census found.

(Source: *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 13 April, 1988)

FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY:

The 238th Plenary Session of the Standing Conference of Culture and Education Ministers and Senators in the Länder (24—25 April 1988, Berlin)

The following main problems were put forward during the meeting: shortening of the period of study; establishment of Postgraduate Colleges *(Graduiertenkolleg)* in higher education institutions; and financial grants for the conducting of research in the latter.

1. The basis for discussing the *Shortening of study periods* was an overview of the main factors which had led, in the first place, to the lengthening of study periods — such factors as the different levels of the students entering higher education institutions, changes in branches of study, student employment parallel to studying, failure on the part of employers to take into account the duration of studies when deciding on whom to employ — all factors which are in fact external to higher education systems. The overview also analysed certain internal factors leading to the lengthening of study periods: the legal dispositions concerning the domain of higher education, the present overload of higher education institutions, the attitude of university personnel towards the demands made by education, and the attitude of students themselves to the former.

The ministers requested the convening of a commission of secretaries of state to work out a priority list of steps to be taken by the Länder with a view to shortening the period of study. They further decided to discuss the matter with representatives of science and the economy.

Continuing their discussions, the ministers of culture and education of the Länder formulated a *Programme for the establishment of postgraduate colleges*. In addition to complementing the ongoing programmes intended to increase the supply of personnel, these postgraduate colleges are expected to be a new source of training for research-oriented scientific personnel. The particularity of the latter, according to the ministers, is that their potential for offering employment in the area of research to young graduates would be an incentive for the latter to graduate as soon as possible.

The end result should be the establishment of about 80 to 100 postgraduate colleges. The culture and education ministers welcome the fact that the German Research Community (DFG) is ready to make an important contribution to the establishment of such colleges, for it had seemed that, lack of funds would be a hindrance to their establishment. As a start, the culture and education ministers requested that the federal government contribute 3 to 5 Million DM to cover the costs of scholarships.

Other details of the programme are to be worked out by a team composed of members drawn from the Conference of Culture and Education Ministers (KMK) and DFG representatives. The hope is that the programme will be able to start in 1989 or in 1990 at the latest.

The culture and education ministers also discussed the *Financing of those research establishments* which are supposed to be jointly financed by the Federation and the Länder. In the opinion of the ministers of culture and education, the DFG and the Max-Plank-Society should play an increasingly important role in the promotion of research and the supply of personnel. The ministers recommended that the subventions provided by the DFG be increased by 5% for 1989.

The meeting also dealt with the *Financing of higher education institutions* which according to the KMK are greatly endangered by the reductions in costs announced for 1989.

Thus, the culture and education ministers of the Länder have requested that the federal government grant the funds which it pledged for 1989 so as to avoid negative consequences for the jointly financed construction of higher education institutions.

(Source: *Secretariat of the Standing Conference of Ministers of Culture and Education in the FRG)*

FRANCE:

1. Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises. A Market with Good Prospects for Higher Education

In the last two years, relationships between higher education and the economic world have witnessed a spectacular development. Yet these relationships remain centred mainly on large enterprises. Indeed, only the latter dispose of the technical, financial, and human means necessary to pursue sustained co-operation with the *grandes écoles* and the universities. However, small and medium-sized enterprises are currently playing a decisive role in economic activities, in technological innovation, and on the labour market. Higher education institutions, therefore, have every interest in not neglecting this sector which underlies the richness of the French economic texture.

Where exactly does co-operation between these two worlds, which appear to be so remote from each other, stand?

A total of 133 small and medium-sized enterprises of the Aquitaine region and of the "Département du Nord" were polled by students attending the seminar "Analysis of small and medium-sized enterprises" at the Université Dauphine.

Are you in touch with higher education institutions?

Yes	No
59%	41%

— If so, with what institutions?

Universities	18%
Business schools	18%
IUT's	30%
Engineering schools	16%
Others	18%

Do you wish to develop contacts with higher education institutions?

Yes	No
74%	26%

If so, for what reasons?

For the development of your enterprise	25%
For the selection of interns	5%
For future recruitment	13%
For the development of new products	16%
For consultancy visits	17%
For the upgrading of your own qualifications	13%
For the continued training of your staff	11%

In which fields would you like to co-operate with higher education?

	Enterprises which have no contacts	Enterprises which already have contacts and wish to extend them
Market studies	30%	20%
Product-production techniques	24%	24%
Commercial functions	19%	15%
Development of international contacts	14%	16%
Informatics	8%	15%
Analytical accountability	5%	10%

Are you willing to co-operate with students in higher education?

Yes	No
80%	20%

The results of this enquiry indicate that, although relationships between small and medium-sized enterprises and higher education are still limited, good development prospects exist, the heads of enterprises being generally open to broader co-operation.

The small and medium-sized enterprises are awaiting the arrival of students.

(Source: *Le Monde/Campus*, Paris, 7 janvier 1988)

2. "The University Tomorrow" Commission Proposed the Creation o First Cycle Colleges to the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research

The "University Tomorrow" Commission, appointed in July 1987 by the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, has identified the basis of a consensus with regard to the future of French higher education.

The members of the Commission, seventy experts drawn both from the University and from the world of enterprise, have given positive evaluation to a number of domains of higher education activity, thus recommending the following:

— that research be developed "without unnecessary upheaval", by such original formulae as hire-purchase so as to facilitate the modernisation of scientific equipment and increased incentives, such as scholarships, to facilitate the recruitment of young researchers and to avoid an "alarming" aging of scientific cadres;

— that lifelong education be developed, that universities be given the means to compete against their private rival sectors with equally effective weapons;

— that the universities implement a communication policy through the activities of a team of specialists assigned to work with every president. Similarly, the international accessibility of French universities could be broadened by the establishment of a French Agency for Academic Exchange (AFEU), as well as by the designation at every university of an ERASMUS correspondent, capable of guiding students through the labyrinth of European programmes.

The Commission has also suggested numerous innovations intended to widen the "*imperative*" opening of the universities to the economic world: an increasingly important role in counselling for specialists drawn from the outside; an increase in the number of untenured specialists, to result from more flexible schedules and higher wages; the development through cooperation with various enterprises of contract based training periods for students; and the creation of permanent teams to be linked to each university president, charged with livening up relations with industry.

But the seventy "sages" have also tackled two key problems: the autonomy of the universities and the organization of the first cycle (the first two years of higher education). They suggest that these two areas should undergo profound reform.

Thus, the report of the Commission envisages a real upheaval of the system of the first university cycle: the latter will be more or less separated from the rest of the university. As a consequence the concept of the two-speed university will again emerge, in a very concrete sense.

(Source: *Le Monde*, Paris, 7 janvier 1988)

GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC:

Good Balance Sheet for Inventions and Innovative Activities at Dresden University

As 62 patent applications were generated in the fields of nature study and technical research in 1987, the year was considered to have been the best year so far in the history of the Dresden University of Transport and Communications.

Approximatively one third of the inventions in question found immediate application in transport and communications as well as in industry. The economic benefits which they have generated have amounted to 2 million marks. During the same year, innovations worked out by the same university and applied to various enterprises yielded a profit of 425,000 marks.

(Source: *Das Hochschulwesen*, 5/1988)

MALTA:

Changes in the University System

Following a change of government, after 16 years of rule by the Malta Labour Party, the new Minister of Education, Dr. Ugo Mifsud Bonnici, launched some important reforms in the university system dominated as it was, since the 1978 and 1980 reforms, by a system of sponsorship by employers for entry and an alternation of work and study periods in equal semesters.

The sponsorship of students by employers and their selection for university entry by the Students Selection Board (established by the law of 1978) have been abolished. Thus entry into the university is no longer determined by the number of places made available by employers. Now, all students having the necessary university and course entry requirements are entitled to register in a course of their choice. Numerus clausus applies only to the course for medical doctors in the Faculty of Medicine and Surgery.

The academic year now runs from October to May (28 weeks) and is divided into quadri-semesters. Students will be provided with work experience between June and September. Worker-students recruited up to February 1987 will retain their sponsorship and work during the summer for their employers. The new students enrolled as of October 1987 are to receive stipends (equivalent to the salaries enjoyed by worker-students) as well as full-pay for the work they carry out during the summer holidays. The stipends are paid by government.

The Faculties of Arts and Science, abolished by the 1980 reforms, have been restored, and courses leading to B.A. and B.Sc. degrees were inaugurated in October 1987. A Foundation Course of one year has been introduced for those students still requiring a minimum number of subjects to qualify fully for university entrance and for those students whose courses begin in October, 1988. Because of the small size of the island, some courses will be offered only every other year. A total of 544 students enrolled in the courses opened in October 1987 as compared to the 282 worker-students enrolled in February of the same year under the old scheme.

The total number of students enrolled in the university now stands at 1,867. They are distributed as follows: Faculty of Law — 161, Faculty of Medicine and Surgery — 352, Faculty of Dental Surgery — 22, Faculty of Architecture and Civil Engineering — 100, Faculty of Engineering — 229, Faculty of Education — 428, Faculty of Management Studies — 309, Faculty of Arts — 87, Faculty of Science — 40, Foundation Studies Course — 139.

(Source: *Council of Europe News-letter — Faits Nouveaux*, No. 5/87)

ROMANIA:

1. The Second National Symposium on the Use of Computers in Education took place in Bucharest on 26—28 May, 1988. It was organized jointly by the Research Institute for Computer Technique and Informatics and the University of Bucharest, with the support of the Romanian National Commission for Unesco.

The symposium was attended by a large number of participants (researchers and teachers from all levels of the educational system) who exchanged information and experiences and confronted viewpoints on the design and the implementation of various computer assisted teaching-learning and evaluation packages. Special emphasis was placed on the presentation of results obtained by the use of computers for assisting learning and instruction in schools and on new experiences in the design of courseware based on theories advanced by the cognitive sciences.

The participants in the symposium shared the view that further steps must be taken in order to develop such systems and that programmes of learning and instruction which actively involve students in the processes of their own training and in the use of computers as technical instruments for solving educational, practical, and research problems must be implemented. Emphasis was placed on the role of higher education and research institutes in developing learning packages which, with the assistance of computers, can meet the growing needs of the various users and interested institutions.

(Source: *Informaţia Bucureştiului*, Bucharest, 28 May, 1988)

2. Enrollment in Upper Secondary and Higher Education in Romania for 1988—1989

During the meeting held on 1 June, 1988, the Political Executive Committee of the Central Committee of the Romanian Communist Party adopted a number of proposals concerning the *Enrollment Plan and Number of Scholarships* for the 1988—1989 school year.

The enrollment figures provided for the coming academic year emphasize the particular attention which the Romanian government and the Communist Party are giving to the development and the updating of education, to its close integration with research and production, and to the formation of thoroughly trained cadres in all fields of activity, in keeping with present and long-term requirements for the building of socialism in Romania.

The plan stipulates that 94 per cent of 9th grade pupils be trained in high schools having broad profiles: industrial, agro-industrial, forestry, economic and specialities.

Also, compared to the 1987—1988 school year, an increased number of pupils will be enrolled in the evening courses of the 9th grade, selected in particular from among those already employed and who, according to present regulations, should complete their compulsory ten-year schooling.

The proposals advanced by the Executive Committee will enable all 10th grade graduates to complete their studies by means of organized training: — high school or vocational education. Thus, by the year 1990, favourable conditions for the generalization of 12-year education will have been created. This situation will contribute to the improvement of the general levels of education and of culture of the Romanian youth.

During the 1988—1989 academic year, admissions to higher education institutions, particularly to technical and economic ones, will be increased by 1,470 students.

(Source: *România liberă*, Bucharest, 2 June 1988)

SWEDEN:

An Initiative concerning Foreign Students

A very important initiative aiming at the training of young researchers from all over the world in Swedish universities is under study. The "International University Programme", which is to begin operations in autumn 1988, aims at an improved quality of research in higher education, using the existing research institutions and scientific laboratories in order to train 2,000 foreign students in 50 fields of study.

The courses, given in English, will vary (in length) from a year and a half to two years. The level of study will be the Master's degree: the candidates should have previously obtained at least a Bachelor's degree.

The programme, sponsored by Swedish industry, which is expecting some indirect benefits from the contacts with foreign students and researchers, intends to use the existing research structures and to establish itself all over the country. In a first phase, the programme will coordinate teaching and research in agricultural applications of biotechnology (Uppsala), in marine biology (Stockholm), in informatics (Linköping), in odontology and in political sciences (Malmö and Lund), and in geology and in geophysics (Luleå).

(Source: *SIPE* (Roma, Istituto per la cooperazione universitaria), December 1987)

SWITZERLAND:

Increased Enrollments in Swiss Higher Education Institutions during the 1987—1988 Academic Year

Entering students

Contrary to what has prevailed in previous years, the number of beginning students is again on the increase. Indeed, 14,298 students enrolled for the first time at a Swiss university during the 1987/88 academic year, which means an increase of 2.9% as compared to 1986/87. And the demographic factor is not what accounts for this new wave of entering students.

Undoubtedly, university studies nowadays are attracting increasing number of women. Whereas in past years the number of women among the entering students was levelling off or even decreasing, they represented 41.2% of the lot this year.

Total student enrollments

The total number of enrolled students was also higher in 1987/88 than during the previous year. There were 78,473 students enrolled at Swiss universities during the 1987/88 winter semester, 2.4% more than during the previous year. Over the same period, the proportion of women also increased slightly, reaching 36.4% this year.

The proportion of foreign students registered almost no change (17.6% in 1987/88, as compared to 17.7% in 1986/87). Swiss universities remain traditionally attractive to foreign students. Moreover, this large proportion of foreign students corresponds to the substantial number of foreigners among the teaching staff.

During the 1987/88 winter semester 15% of all students were enrolled in postgraduate or doctoral studies.

Students are young. This traditional image of students is not altogether false as one third of the students are under 23 years old. Nevertheless, 12% are over 31 years old, and this proportion is expanding every year, not only because of so-called "eternal" students, but also because of an increased tendency on the part of many individuals to begin studying after the age of 30.

(Source: "Etudiants des hautes écoles suisses 1987/88", *INFO à la carte*, Office fédéral de la statistique, Bern, April 1988)

USSR:

1. Creation of the USSR State Committee for Public Education

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has decided upon the creation of the Union-Republic State Committee for Public Education of the USSR, thus abolishing the former Ministry of Education of the USSR, the Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education of the USSR, and the State Committee for Vocational and Technical Education of the USSR.

The Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR has appointed Mr. Gennadi A. Yagodin to serve as chairman of the USSR State Committee for Public Education.

(Source: *Pravda*, 9 March 1988; *Izvestiya*, 13 March 1988)

2. Restructuring of the Further and In-Service Training Systems of Managerial Staff and Specialists Employed in the National Economy

The Politburo of the Central Committee (CC) of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union (CPSU) examined and, on the whole, adopted at its meeting of November 26, 1987, the proposals put forward by the government regarding the restructuring of the further and in-service training for managerial staff members and specialists employed in the national economy, having in view the ongoing economic reform, new methods of management, and the speeding-up of the scientific and technical revolution. The proposals envisage the creation, on a new basis, of a single state system for the further training of personnel, a shift, during the 12th five-year plan period, from periodic to lifelong education of managerial staff and specialists working in all branches of the national economy. Different training forms and methods have been devised. The results of further training courses will be taken into account when these categories of personnel are certified.

The same proposals stipulate the further expansion of the network of educational establishments and the creation of inter-branch further-training institutes as well as of special faculties and departments attached to higher education institutions and technical schools. Measures have been established which are aimed at improving the organizational and methodological management of the work carried out by the educational institutions responsible for the further and in-service training of specialists, and the strengthening of the material base of the former.

(Source: *Byulleten Ministerstva vysshego i srednego spetsialnogo obrazovaniya SSSR*, Moscow, No. 2, 1988)

3. The Setting-up of Regional Higher Education Centres

According to an Order issued by the Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education of the USSR on 30 December 1987, regional higher education centres have been set up in the following towns and economic districts of the USSR: Moscow, Leningrad, Minsk, Kiev, Rostov, Tomsk, Penza, Voronezh, Sverdlovsk, Kharkov, Dnepropetrovsk, Gomel, and Cheliabinsk. Each centre is subordinated to the Ministry of Higher and Specialized Secondary Education located in the respective Republic.

The regional higher education centres have been established with the intention of improving the coordination of activities carried out by higher education institutions in the various towns and regions of the country, of achieving the all-round development and the rational utilization of their potential, and of solving the long-term tasks linked to the economic and social development of towns and regions.

These centres are specialized enterprises which serve the higher education institutions based in their respective regions (towns), irrespective of their departmental subordination. Their services, which they provide on a contract basis, are expected to be self-supporting.

The principal task of the regional higher education centres is the creation of an inter-faculty infrastructure based on the organization of joint subdivisions which cater to the needs of the educational process and of research, of production subunits, and of various social and cultural establishments. They are all aimed at improving the training of specialists; at enhancing the efficiency of the research conducted in higher education, at improving the conditions of work, living, and leisure of students and teachers; at building higher education establishments; and at solving other regional higher education related problems.

(Source: *Byulleten Ministerstva vysshego i srednego spetsialnogo obrazovaniya SSSR*, Moscow, No. 3, 1988)

UNITED KINGDOM:

Education Reform Bill

The Education Reform Bill currently before Parliament includes the following higher education provisions:

Universities (Great Britain)

For the first time the allocation of finance to universities in Great Britain will be subject to a clear legislative framework. The Bill provides for the replacement of the (non-statutory and formally advisory) University Grants Committee by a new body to be called the Universities Funding Council (UFC). The UFC will be independent of Government, with power, among other things, to appoint its own staff. The Council will have 15 members to be appointed by the Secretary of State. Of these, 6 to 9 are to come from higher education and the remainder from other backgrounds. The Council will have executive responsibility for allocating to universities funds provided by the Secretary of State. The Secretary of State may attach terms and conditions to the funds he provides; however, these may not relate to the making of payments by the UFC to any specified university. The UFC may attach conditions to the funds it allocates to universities but the Bill makes clear that these conditions may not relate to the use made by universities of funds received from other sources.

The Bill also provides for the appointment of Commissioners with powers to amend the Charters and Statutes of Universities and certain other degree-awarding institutions to allow for the dismissal of academic staff on grounds of redundancy or inefficiency. The provisions will only apply to staff who are appointed or promoted on or after 20 November 1987. The Commissioners will also be charged with seeing that the institutions in question have appropriate procedures governing academic staff dismissals and appeals. Academic staff will also, for the first time, be able to take action for wrongful dismissal in the Courts like the great majority of other employees. Previously, the Courts would not consider such cases since the latter were held to fall within the exclusive jurisdiction of the relevant University Visitor (often HM The Queen).

Polytechnics and Colleges (England)

More than 50% of higher education students in England attend Polytechnics and Colleges. Most of the latter are at present owned and financed by Local Authorities. The Bill proposes that the polytechnics and major colleges should be reestablished as freestanding legal entities and should receive their funds from a new national body to be called the Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC). The PCFC's powers and membership will parallel those of the UFC.

Each institution will have a Board of Governors with between 13 and 25 members: at least half will be experienced in industry, business, commerce and the professions; the remainder will consist of the Director or Principal of the institution, members nominated by the staff and students at the institution and relevant local authorities, and members coopted by the rest of the Board. The initial members will be appointed by the Secretary of State. All the staff working exclusively at the institution, plus other designated staff working at the institution, will be transferred on their existing terms of service to the employ of the new institution.

Other colleges with only a relatively small involvement in higher education and whose students mainly follow lower level courses will continue to be owned by local authorities. The PCFC however will have powers to fund degree and certain other courses in these institutions. Other courses will continue to be funded by local authorities. At present about 20% of non-university higher education students in England attend courses in these colleges.

Polytechnics and Colleges (Wales)

The Bill does not immediately change the status of the Polytechnic of Wales or of other Welsh Colleges; however, it provides that their status and funding may be changed in the future, if Parliament approves. (The main colleges in Scotland already have their own legal status).

(Source: Council of Europe/Conseil de l'Europe, Standing Conference on University Problems (CC-PU), "Information Document by the United Kingdom Delegation", Strasbourg, 22—24 March, 1988)

USA:

1. Focus on IIE: Enriching the Foreign Fulbrighter's Experience in the US

This year over 5,200 Fulbright fellows are enrolled in US graduate schools under IIE auspices. They are funded by the US Information Agency (USIA) and binational commissions overseas, with support from universities and other private US sources. The fellows, representing 117 countries, are, for the most part, in master's or doctoral programs in business, engineering, the social and physical sciences, and the humanities. Almost 400 US colleges and universities serve as host institutions. The fellows, competitively selected in their home countries by Fulbright Commissions and USIA offices from promising applicants, are a diverse, talented, and highly qualified group.

USIA and IIE have undertaken an effort, now in its second year, to provide special opportunities for these Fulbrighters to come to know and understand the US and to develop lasting professional and personal ties with their colleagues in this country. Staff in each of IIE's seven offices in the US are engaged in innovative programs of introductory conferences and theme seminars and in a pilot professionally-oriented mentor program which will benefit nearly 900 Fulbright graduate students annually. (These new activities complement the pre-academic training and orientation programs and cultural enrichment grants that IIE traditionally has offered to Fulbrighters and other foreign students for whose programs it is responsibile.)

2. Foreign Student/Scholar

... Admissions officers at higher education institutions with limited experience in evaluating graduate and undergraduale credentials of foreign students can refer to the National Credentials Evaluation Project. The service is available at no cost to regionally-accredited colleges and universities enrolling 150 or more foreign students on non-immigrant visas. Credentials are evaluated by a network of more than 50 qualified volunteers from educational institutions across the US. The project is sponsored by the National Liaison Committees on Foreign Student Admissions (NLC) and administered by NAFSA with partial support from USIA. For information: National Credentials Evaluation Project/NAFSA/1860 19th Street NW/Washington, DC 20009; 202/462—4811.

3. US-Soviet Exchanges

Congress has directed USIA to make exchange programs with the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe a higher priority. The bill 'earmarks' $ 2 million of Fulbright and International Visitor Programme funds exclusively for such exchanges with the Soviet Union. In addition, the bill creates a new youth exchange program, the Samantha Smith Memorial Exchange Program, in memory of the Maine schoolgirl who visited the USSR at the invitation of Soviet Premier Andropov. The new program will fund activities for secondary school and undergraduate students between the US and the USSR and Eastern Europe.

(Source: *Education Association*, New York, January/ February, 1988)

MISCELLANEOUS:

1. Commonwealth 'University' Scaled Down

Plans for the Commonwealth's new distance learning institution were scaled down last week because only half the money necessary to implement the original scheme has been pledged by governments. But there are still hopes that the network will eventually develop into a fully-fledged university.

The working group which is to produce a blueprint for the new institution held its first meeting, one lasting three days, in London, at the end of February, 1988. The group has been asked to submit a report by the end of June so that legal formalities can be completed, a chief executive appointed this year, and some activity in process by the time the Commonwealth heads of government meet in Kuala Lumpur at the end of 1989.

So far, £15 million have been promised, the bulk coming from six countries. Canada, which is providing the headquarters in Vancouver, is the biggest donor at £6 million; with Brunei offering £3 million; Nigeria, £1,5 million; and India, £1 million. Britain is making available facilities at the Open University worth up to £2 million in the first five years, while Australia is giving support worth £1 million for regional centres in developing regions.

A number of smaller countries have promised contributions. Malta has offered the use of facilities for a regional centre and the Bahamas, Barbados, Botswana, and Zimbabwe are yet to announce the size and nature of their donations.

The committee of experts chaired by Lord Briggs, provost of Worcester College, Oxford, whose report formed the basis for the project, put the first five years'costs at £28 million. That allowed for an initial staff of 24 including nine academics, building up to 42, with 15 academics.

Dr. John Daniel, president of Laurentian University, Canada, who is chairing the working group, admitted that it would be a delicate political task to satisfy the varying aspirations for the new institution on a limited budget.

Dr. Daniel hopes that more countries will be persuaded to make contributions to the new institution and that donor agencies such as the World Bank will supplement its budget.

(Source: *The Times Higher Education Supplement*, No. 800, March 4, 1988)

2. Higher Education-Industry Collaboration in the European Economic Community

The European Commission (Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs, and Education) sponsored a meeting in Brussels, from 5 to 7 April, 1988, on the training needs of Industrial Liaison Officers (ILO's) in the higher education sector of the European Community.

The twenty participants took note of the fact that the effective exploitation of the potential of relevant resources in the higher education sector of the European Economic Community (EEC) has been widely accepted as a key requirement for its technological growth and economic prosperity. There is a growing realization that although the EEC has been responsible for some significant contributions to science and invention, it lags behind its main industrial competitors: Japan and the USA. Moreover, the view is being increasingly held that academic resources have not to date played the needed pivotal role in achieving and maintaining Europe's place in highly competitive international markets.

The establishment of lasting and beneficial relationships between academic institutions and industry requires a sound knowledge of their varying backgrounds and a clear understanding on both sides of the precise purposes and anticipated benefits which linkages are expected to bring. To be mutually beneficial, these relationships cannot be established in a haphazard manner. In particular, the transfer of technology demands a coordinated, strategic approach and implementation that utilizes the planning process to the fullest extent.

Given these considerations, the participants in the meeting made the following recommendations to the Commission:

1. Establishment of lists of subjects and of methodologies required for the training of Industrial Liaison Officers in the Community, particularly those engaged in technology transfer, including those employed in industry for whom some of the training subjects are clearly applicable.

2. The establishment of an "Association", the membership of which is open directly to European Community Industrial Liaison Officers, drawn both from the academic world and from industry. This body would undertake the relevant training of its members and supply all the necessary information on an international basis relevant to University-Industry co-operation for utilization within the Community.

3. The establishment of a Community network to facilitate the beneficial transfer of academic services and technology.

4. The holding of Workshops throughout the Community, with picked teams of Industrial Liaison Officers in attendance to develop all aspects of University-Industry co-operation. The participants considered that this recommendation was particularly important for those countries for which co-operation is in its nascent stages.

(Source: Information provided by Professor F. Keith Sellar of the University of Aberdeen, who served as Chairman of the Meeting in question)

3. Informal Meeting of the European Education Council: Steps to 1992

An informal meeting of the European Community Education Council took place in Münster on 25 and 26 February to discuss the contribution of education to the completion of the internal market. Mr. Martin, the vice-president of the Commission of the European Communities and the European Commissioner responsible for education and social affairs, announced his intention to present a draft programme of medium-term objectives for education at the next formal meeting of European Education Ministers. He stressed the awareness of the Education Ministers of the vital role which education and training will play in the run-up to 1992, highlighting in particular:

— the need to make optimum use of human resources, in order to face up to the challenge of technological change, increased Community competition, and improvement in the quality of life;

— the importance of mutual recognition of diplomas and qualifications in the context of free movement of persons;

— the fundamental role of education and training in the reinforcement of economic and social cohesion;

— the preparation of young people for their common future as citizens of Europe.

For further details, please contact the Eurydice European Unit: Rue Archimède 17, Bte 17, B-1040 Brussels, Belgium.

(Source: *EURYDICE Communiqué*, Brussels, Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs, and Education, Commission of the European Communities, 2 March, 1988)

Bibliographical References

BOOK-REVIEWS AND BOOK-NOTES

Higher Education in American Society

Edited by *Philip G. ALTBACH* and *Robert O. BERDAHL*
Prometheus Books, New York, 1988, ISBN 0-87975-420-6, 351 p.

In this new, revised edition of *Higher Education in American Society*, the effects and implications of the changing relationship between external societal influences and academic institutions are explored in a series of essays by experts in the field. Continuing the tradition of excellent scholarship and insightful analysis of policy and practice established by the first edition, this updated volume contains seven new essays that join nine selections retained from the original volume. Together, they create a multifaceted yet unified perspective on the relationship between post-secondary education and society. Such crucial issues as autonomy, accountability, and academic freedom are addressed in an authoritative yet highly readable style. A brief historical overview of the development of higher education institutions provides important background information on their original purposes and goals. Armed with an understanding of educational traditions, the reader will come to appreciate the subtle changes in fundamental issues described in later essays.

Essays that focus on external forces having an impact on post-secondary education present valuable technical information about the ways in which the U.S. Federal government, the courts, and private constituencies exercise their power to set and to regulate certain educational policies. In some cases, such as accreditation or tax status, the role of the government may not be in dispute; however, in illustrating the necessary interconnections between external entities and academic institutions, areas in which it would behoove these groups *not* to meddle are also revealed.

Internal factors such as declining enrollments, changing interests of students, competition with industry for qualified faculty and staff, and political and financial considerations regarding curriculum are also discussed and evaluated.

In *Higher Education in American Society*, the editors propose no panaceas. Rather, they have attempted to show how higher education and society function at a time of considerable stress not only for academic institutions but for those who work in them, as well. This intricate relationship involves external constituencies such as government, the courts, and others, and all of the internal communities that make up academic institutions. In addition, the imponderables of enrollment declines, budget cuts, and changing student goals are added to an already complex situation. The authors in this volume try to unravel the confusion, thereby suggesting ways of approaching the relationship between higher education and society.

Of vital interest to administrators, faculty, students, and any others who value the aims and policy objectives of our educational institutions, *Higher Education in American Society* is a necessary addition to any library.

Maximizing Examination Performance: A Psychological Approach

by *Don Davies*

Kogan Page, London/Nichols Publishing, New York, 1986, 146 pp. ISBN (UK) 1 85091 175 4; ISBN (USA) 0-89397-254-1

Written by Don Davies, former Principal Lecturer in Teaching Studies at Worchester College, the present work is a representative psychological and pedagogical synthesis of genuine interest for those working in the field of higher education. Although the problem which the book tackles, the threefold relationship — examination — examiner — examinee — is one of the most highly debated and controversial problems in universities all over the world, the author has been able to place it within a bright and optimistic perspective putting forth arguments that endorse our hope that improvements in this domain are possible and that they will depend on the competences of the persons involved, particularly on their trained capacity to know and increasingly to control the network of implications generated through the processes of communication.

The work displays a systematic and subtle approach to a wide range of factors, conditions, mechanisms, causes, and effects with regard to the psychological and educational behaviour of students The author has analyzed, with coherence and realism, the problems which he has evoked.

What follows is a brief summary of the main points of the book.

The Motivation-Performance Relationship (ch. I) occupies the top position on the explanatory-actional axis: how to motivate students, levels of activation, strategies of optimum motivation.

Anxiety and Performance (ch. II) introduces the reader to the relationships between mechanisms, to the identifiable personality traits involved, to situational factors, and to the author's conception of an appropriate anxiety test.

Stress (ch. III), viewed as a reaction to disfunctionalities and to breaches of individual homeostatic equilibria, introduces us to the sphere of the dynamic evolution of the phenomenon as it relates to experience, to performance, and to strategies and techniques aimed at reducing it. The latter include improvement of information, relaxation programmes, specific training, adjustment to specific situations of stress, modelling of conduct, desensitization, overlearning, intrinsic motivations which diminish the importance of the event, and perceptive modifications of given tasks.

Fatigue, Worry, Health, and Learning (ch. IV) are concepts which lead the reader to an analysis of those cumulative effects which give rise to poor examination results and then to sets of strategies, particularly the development of self and of programmed learning which lead to improvement.

Psychological Preparation for Examination (ch. V) offers a key to the solution of the psychological difficulties involved in the taking of examinations, particularly the motivational and the emotional aspects including: goal setting, study difficulties, counselling, learning experience, decision making, psychic concentration, and focussing.

Maximizing Examination Performance (ch. VI) offers an interesting theoretical-methodological framework for the following: knowledge of and control over attitude vectors, cognitive preparation, psychic control, and mental practice.

Confidence (ch. VII); the analysis of this key concept offers a humanizing perspective with regard to the concepts of programme, technique, method, relationship, quality, examination, examining, and examiner.

In conclusion, one can only praise the well-grounded and convincing arguments which the author puts forth, the clear style, the highly convincing data, the practical relevance of the ideas and the experiments, the careful selection of bibliography, and the thought-provoking quality of this salutary and rewarding book.

Ioan Neacșu

Community of Universities: An Informal Portrait of the Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth: 1913—1963

by *Eric Ashby*

The Association of Commonwealth Universities, 1963, republished in 1988. VIII, 118 p. ISBN 0 85143 108 9

The Commonwealth of Universities: The Story of the Association of Commonwealth Universities: 1963—1988

by *Hugh W. Springer* and *Alastair Niven*

The Association of Commonwealth Universities, 1988, 143 p. ISBN 0-85143-109-7

Financial Aid for First Degree Study at Commonwealth Universities, 1988—90: A Guide to Scholarships, Bursaries, Grants, Loans, etc. for Commonwealth Students who Wish to Study for a First Degree at a Commonwealth University Outside Their Own Country

The Association of Commonwealth Universities, 1988, 48 p. ISBN 0-85143-110-0

Awards for Commonwealth University Academic Staff, 1988—90: Fellowships, Visiting Professorships, Grants, etc., Open to University Academic Staff in a Commonwealth Country who Wish to Carry Out Research, Make Study Visits, or Teach for a While at a University in Another Commonwealth Country

The Association of Commonwealth Universities, 1987, 228 p. ISBN 0-05143-111-9

Of the four books presented above, the first two form an institutional history of the Association of Commonwealth Universities which appropriately mark the 75th anniversary of the founding of the organization under its first appelation, the Bureau of Information for the Universities of the Empire, in 1913. The other two volumes, which list respectively 141 grants, studentships, and loan schemes, and 714 schemes for fellowships, visiting professorships, and grants open to Commonwealth students and faculty members, illustrate one of the major functions of the Association, the promotion of academic mobility throughout the countries of the Commonwealth for students and for academic staff members.

The other services performed by the Association include an academic appointments service which handles well over 1,000 academic vacancies a year, its role as an information bureau, and its sponsorship of meetings and conferences. The Association, in fact, holds three kinds of major meetings: quinquennial Congresses to which each member university is invited to send several delegates; Conferences, held twice in each five-year period, for the executive heads of member universities, and the annual meetings of the Association's Council which are, in effect, inter-university conferences when joint sessions are held with executive heads in the sponsoring country.

The Association, as its name implies, has been tied very closely to the political evolution of the Commonwealth, from a United Kingdom centred and dominated empire, one increasingly challenged by the demands of decolonization, to the free association of nations having certain shared traditions and ideals. Notably, in 1963 when the Association of Commonwealth Universities received its Royal Charter, it changed its name, dropping the designation, 'British'. In 1968, it separated itself, except for a few vestigial links, from the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Principals of the Universities of the United Kingdom with which it had been very firmly tied.

In other ways too the Association of Commonwealth Universities has followed closely the evolution of the Commonwealth. The universities of the Irish Republic, South Africa, and Pakistan can no longer belong to the Association as their countries are no longer members of the Commonwealth.

In addition to the United Kingdom, two other countries belonging to the Commonwealth are also members of the Europe Region of Unesco: Cyprus and Malta. Universities in both countries are members of the Association of Commonwealth Universities.

The ACU is the oldest international association of universities in the world. With its 321 member universities in 29 Commonwealth countries, it continues to serve, in many ways, as a model for other international associations of higher education institutions.

Learning to Teach Practical Skills
A Self-instruction Guide (Second Edition)

by *Ian Winfield*

Kogan Page Ltd., London, 1988, 130 p. ISBN 1 85091 447 8

The new edition of this well-established and widely used guide is especially timely in view of the increasing emphasis being placed on practical subjects and vocationally oriented courses in schools and colleges.

The teaching of practical skills is itself a task which demands a high degree of ability. *Learning to Teach Practical Skills* has been specifically designed to provide a self-instruction guide to professional techniques and methods for teachers, trainers, and instructors in industry, education, and recreation.

It will be particularly welcomed by those with no teaching experience as it provides step-by-step instructions, clear explanations, and a wealth of practical advice based on first-hand experience. Case studies from a wide variety of settings — industrial training, trade instruction in government skill centres, sports, and recreational activities — illustrate the text throughout.

The new second edition has been thoroughly revised, and updated and two completely new chapters have been added, one on preparations for instruction and the other on making social contact with learners.

For further information please contact: Kogan Page Ltd, 120 Pentonville Road, London NI, United Kingdom.

A Handbook of Educational Technology (Second Edition)

by *Fred Percival* and *Henry Ellington*

Kogan Page Ltd., London, 1988, 274 p. ISBN 1 85091 449 4

First published in 1984, this well-received book presents a clear overview of the principles underlying educational technology and explains how adopting an educational technology-based approach can help to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the average teacher or lecturer.

Three introductory chapters are followed by a detailed look at the different aspects and applications of various technologies, providing a clear and accessible survey of their uses in a wide range of learning situations.

New material has been added to each chapter of the second edition to keep readers up-to-date with recent developments and the latest terms and trends. A number of new illustrations, notably twenty photographs, have been added to enhance the visual impact of the text. The reference section at the end of the book has also been completely revised, and over 250 new terms have been added to the glossary.

A Handbook of Educational Technology is an invaluable reference aid for practicing teachers, lecturers, and trainers who want to learn about and to implement the principles and practices of educational technology. It will also provide a concise, clear, and basic text on the subject for trainee teachers and students of education and educational technology.

For further information please contact: Kogan Page Ltd., 120 Pentonville Road, London NI, United Kingdom.

Calendar of Events

MEETINGS ORGANIZED BY CEPES

For further information concerning these meetings, contact: The Director, European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES), 39 Ştirbei Vodă Street, Bucharest, Romania

1988

5—7 September

14th Meeting of the Advisory Committee of CEPES
(Bucharest, Romania)

26 September

Consultation of National Information Bodies for Recognition of Studies and Mobility of Persons in Higher Education (in conjunction with the 4th Session of the Regional Committee
(Bucharest, Romania)

27—29 September

4th Session of the Regional Committee for the Application of the Convention on the Recognition of Studies, Diplomas and Degrees concerning Higher Education in the States belonging to the Europe Region
(Bucharest, Romania)

17—19 October

European Symposium on "The Role of Women in Higher Education, in Research, and in the Planning and Administration of Education", organized jointly with the Division of Equality of Educational Opportunity and Special Programmes (ED/SPO) of Unesco
(Bucharest, Romania)

1989

February

Symposium on "The Advent of Artificial Intelligence in Higher Education"
(Bucharest, Romania)

Late Spring

Regional Seminar on "Universities as Centres of Lifelong Education"
(Place to be decided)

June

8th Consultation of Liaison Officers of CEPES
(Bucharest, Romania)

Autumn

International Symposium on "The Relationship of Higher Education with Industry"
(Cottbus, German Democratic Republic)

Autumn

Meeting of Editors of European Higher Education Journals
(Bucharest, Romania)

OTHER MEETINGS

1988

1—6 July

Seminar for Newly Elected University Administrators.
Organized jointly by CRE and the Programme for Institutional Management of Higher Education (IMHE) of OECD.
(Cork, Ireland)

For further information, contact: CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland

27 July—10 August

30th London International Youth Science Fortnight
(London, United Kingdom)
For further information, contact: London International Youth Science Fortnight, PO Box 159, London SW10 9QX, United Kingdom

1—5 August

"International University Co-operation, A Critical Analysis: Failures, Success, Perspectives" Mid-Term General Conference of the International Association of Universities (IAU)
(Rio de Janeiro, Brazil)
For further information, contact: D. Allen, IAU, 1 rue Miollis, 75732 Paris, CEDEX 15, France

8—12 August

Conference on "Promoting Ethics, Values and Interdisciplinarity in Higher Education"
(Cambridge, United Kingdom)
For further information, contact: Prof. S. J. Paolini, Alaska Pacific University, 4101 University Drive Anchorage, Alaska 99508, USA

10—17 August

14th World Conference "Developing Distance Education"
(Oslo, Norway)
For further information, contact: ICDE Conference Office, Markveien 35 B, P.O.Box 2100, Gruner lokka, N-0505 Oslo 5, Norway

14—18 August

13th International Round Table for the Advancement of Counselling (IRTAC)
(Alberta, Canada)
For further information, contact: Dr. S. Robertson, Dept. of Educational Psychology, The University of Calgary, Calgary, Alberta, Canada T2N 1N4

15—19 August

"Visions of Higher Education: Transnational Dialogue: Social Responsibility in Higher Education"
4th International Conference on the Future of Higher Education
(Turku, Finland)
For further information, contact: Dr. Rolf Homann, Head of the Unit for Culture and Society, Gottlieb Duttweiler Institut, Langhaldenstrasse 21, CH-8803, Rüschlikon, Switzerland

30 August—2 September

Second European Logo Conference
(Gent, Belgium)
For further information, contact: State University of Gent Department of Education — EDIF, Eurolog '89, H. Dunantlaan 1, B 9000 Gent, Belgium

30 August—2 September

SEFI Annual Conference "Engineering Education in Europe 1988"
(Leuven, Belgium)
For further information, contact: SEFI Conference 1988, Local Organizing Committee, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, Celestijnenlaan 200A, B-3030 Leuven, Belgium

5—8 September

Round Table "Education Today Faces the XXI Century"
For further information, contact: H. Marchal, Unesco, ED/SCM, 7 place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France

12—14 September

"Social and Cultural Innovation in a Technological World: The Culture of Politics and Political Culture of the Future"
(Rüschlikon, Switzerland)
For further information, contact: Dr. Rolf Homann, Head of the Unit for Culture and Society, Gottlieb Duttweiler Institut, Langhaldenstrasse 21, CH-8803, Rüschlikon, Switzerland

16—17 September

"The Changing Functions of the University' CRE — Bi-annual Conference
(Bologna, Italy)
For further information, contact: CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland

21—27 September

4th Conference of Ministers of Education of Member States of the Europe Region

(MINEDEUROPE IV)
(Headquarters of Unesco, Paris, France)
For further information, contact: Unesco, Director ED/EPP, 7 place de Fontenoy, 75700 Paris, France

11—14 October

"Effectiveness of In-service Education and Training of Teachers and School Leaders"
5th All-European Conference of Directors of Educational Research Institutions
(Triesenberg, Liechtenstein)
For further information, contact: Mr Michael Vorbeck, Head of the Section for Educational Research and Documentation, Council of Europe, BP 431 R6, 67006 Strasbourg Cedex, France

11—14 October

4th Session of the Conference of the Rectors of Balkan Universities (CRUB)
(Bucharest, Romania)
For further information, contact: The Rector, University of Bucharest, 64, Blvd. Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej, Bucharest, Romania

17—22 October

16th Conference of Ministers of Higher Education of Socialist Countries
(Bucharest, Romania)

October

Meeting of Universities of Countries of Mediterranean Europe
(Bordeaux, France)
For further information, contact: Mr. M. Vialard, 351 Cours de la Liberation, 33405 Talence Cedex, France

24—26 November

"Research on Higher Education in Europe — Approaches, Results and Future Perspectives"
(Kassel, FRG)
For further information, contact: Prof. Ulrich Teichler, Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung, Gesamthochschule Kassel, Henschelstr. 2 D-3500 Kassel, FRG

30 November—2 December

"Continuing Education of Engineers — Investment into the Future"
(Stuttgart, FRG)
For further information, contact: Prof. Dr. E. Golling, c/o Technische Akademie Esslingen, In den Anlagen 5, P.O. Box 1269, D-7302 Ostfildern, FRG

19—21 December

1988 SHRE Annual Conference — "Academic Freedom"
(Guildford, Surrey, United Kingdom)
For further information, contact: Frank Curtiss, 1988 SHRE Conference Administrator, Secretariat, University of Surrey, Guildford, Surrey GU2 5XH, UK

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17—19 January

41st Session of the International Conference on Education (ICE)
"Diversification of Post-Secondary Education in Relation to Employment"
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For further information, contact: The Director, International Bureau of Education, P.O. Box 199, 1211 Geneva 20, Switzerland

18—19 May

"The Regional Relevance of Vocational Training"
CRE Bi-annual Conference
(Uppsala, Sweden)
For further information, contact: CRE, 10 rue du Conseil Général, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland

11—15 September

"The University and the Community"
9th General Assembly of CRE
(Durham, United Kingdom)
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NOTES ON CONTRIBUTORS

BERG, Carin. Former Head of National Equivalence Information Centre, National Board of Universities and Colleges, Sweden. Presently Director of CEPES.
Address: European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES), 39 Ştirbei Vodă Street, 70732 Bucharest, Romania.
CLARE, Denis.
Address: National Academic Recognition Centre (NARIC), the British Council, 10 Spring Gardens, SW 1A 2 BN, London, United Kingdom.
CHIŢORAN, Dumitru. Programme Specialist.
Address: European Centre for Higher Education (CEPES), 39 Ştirbei Vodă Street, 70732 Bucharest, Romania.
DALICHOW, Fritz. Senior Administrative Officer.
Address: ERASMUS Bureau, 15 rue d'Arlon, 1040 Bruxelles, Belgium.
DICKEY, Karlene N. Dr., Associate Dean of Graduate Studies.
Address: Stanford University, Graduate Division Administrative Center, Old Union, Building 590, Stanford, CA 94305/3049, USA.
ELIOU, Marie. Professor, University of Thessaly.
Address: 9 rue Alféiou, 11522 Athens, Greece.
JABŁOŃSKA-SKINDER, Hanna. Scientific Secretary.
Address: Institute for Science Policy and Higher Education, Ul Nowy Swiat 69, 00—046 Warsaw, Poland.
LANGLOIS. Claudine. Head, Information and Documentation Centre.
Address: International Association of Universities (IAU), 1 rue Miollis, 75732 Paris, Cedex 15, France.
LAWSON. Harold W. Professor. Consortium Coordinator.
Address: Swedish International University Consortium, C/O National Board of Universities and Colleges, Drottninggatan 95 A, Box 45501, 10430 Stockholm, Sweden.
NICOLAE. Valentin. Professor.
Address: Academy of Economic Studies, 6 Piaţa Romană, Bucharest, Romania.
SMITH, Alan. Director.
Address: ERASMUS Bureau, 15 rue d'Arlon, 1040 Bruxelles, Belgium.
TEICHLER, Ulrich. Professor.
Address: Wissenschaftliches Zentrum für Berufs- und Hochschulforschung, Gesamthochschule Kassel, Henschelstr. 4, 3500 Kassel, Federal Republic of Germany.

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